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The International Journal of
INDIAN PSYCHOLOGY



Person of the Month
Jacques Lacan (1901-1981)

Editor in Chief:
Prof. Suresh M. Makvana, PhD
Editor:
Ankit P. Patel

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INDIAN PSYCHOLOGY

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Chief Editor

Prof. Suresh M. Makvana, PhD

Editor

Ankit P. Patel

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Message from the Desk of Editor

It gives me immense pleasure to welcome all to explore/publish/ comment in/on our journal, The International Journal of Indian Psychology (IJIP). There are a lot of challenges which the growing psychological face in the realms of basic necessities in life. Psychological thoughts can play a very distinct role in bringing about this change. One of the key objectives of research should be its usability and application. This journal attempts to document and spark a debate on the research focused on psychological research and ideas in context of emerging geographies. The sectors could range from psychological education and improvement, mental health, environmental issues and solution, health care and medicine and psychological related areas. The key focus would however be the emerging sectors and research which discusses application and usability in social or health context.

We intended to publish case reports, review articles, with main focus on original research articles. Over objective is to reach all the psychological practitioners, who have knowledge and interest but have no time to record the interesting cases, research activities and new innovative procedures which helps us in updating our knowledge and improving our treatment.

Finally, I would like to thank RED'SHINE International Publications, Inc for this keepsake, and my editorial team, technical team, authors and well wishers, who are promoting this journals. With these words, I conclude and promise that the standards policies will be maintained. We hope that the research featured here sets up many new milestones. I look forward to make this endeavour very meaningful.

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Person of the Month: Jacques Lacan (1901-1981)

Ankit Patel¹

Born	13 April 1901 Paris, France
Died	9 September 1981 Paris, France
Citizenship	French
Known for	Mirror phase, The Real, The Symbolic The Imaginary, Graph of desire
Fields	Psychoanalysis



Jacques Lacan, in full Jacques Marie Émile Lacan (born April 13, 1901, Paris, France—died Sept. 9, 1981, Paris) French psychoanalyst who gained an international reputation as an original interpreter of Sigmund Freud's work.

Lacan earned a medical degree in 1932 and was a practicing psychiatrist and psychoanalyst in Paris for much of his career. He helped introduce Freudian theory into France in the 1930s, but he reached prominence only after he began conducting regular seminars at the University of Paris in 1953. He acquired celebrity status in France after the publication of his essays and lectures in *Écrits* (1966). He founded and headed an organization called the Freudian School of Paris from 1964 until he disbanded it in 1980 for what he claimed was its failure to adhere with sufficient strictness to Freudian principles.

Lacan's avowed theoretical intention, from at least 1953, was the attempt to reformatize what he termed "the Freudian field." His substantial corpus of writings, speeches and seminars can be read as an attempt to unify and reground what are the four interlinking aspirations of Freud's theoretical writings:

¹ Clinical Psychology, Dept. of Psychology, Sardar Patel University, Vallabh Vidyanagar, Gujarat

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- a theory of psychoanalytic practice as a curative procedure;
- the generation of a systematic metapsychology capable of providing the basis for
- the formalization of a diagnostic heuristic of mental illness; and
- the construction of an account of the development of the "civilized" human psyche.

Lacan's failing health made it difficult for him to meet the demands of the year-long Seminars he had been delivering since the fifties, but his teaching continued into the first year of the eighties. After dissolving his School, the EFP, in January 1980, Lacan travelled to Caracas to found the Freudian Field Institute on 12 July. The Overture to the Caracas Encounter was to be Lacan's final public address. His last texts from the spring of 1981 are brief institutional documents pertaining to the newly formed Freudian Field Institute and Lacan died on 9 September 1981.

TIMELINE

1901

- Jacques-Marie-Émile Lacan is born in Paris, April 13, to a family of solid Catholic tradition. He is educated at the Collège Stanislas, a Jesuit school. He has a sister, Magdeleine-Marie and a younger brother Marc-Marie, who later becomes a Benedictine at the abbey of Hautecombe. His brother's name appears before those of his parents in his thesis dedication. After his baccalauréat he studies medicine and later psychiatry.

1927

- Starts clinical training, works at Sainte-Anne's hospital in the second section of women and in the Clinic for Mental and Encephalic Diseases directed by Professor Henri Claude. A year later he works in the Special Infirmary Service where Clérambault had a practice. Up to 1932 Lacan was involved in the Société Neurologique, the Société de Psychiatrie and the Société Clinique de Médecine mentale, he was fully integrated in the official circles of neurology and psychiatry.

1931

- Lacan presents some of his hypotheses at the Evolution Psychiatrique and publishes the following year in the *Revue française de psychanalyse* his translation of Freud's "On Some Neurotic Mechanisms in Jealousy, Paranoia and Homosexuality." Receives a diploma as a forensic psychiatrist. He publishes *Structure des psychoses paranoïaques*, *Semaine des Hôpitaux de Paris*, 7 July 1931.

1932

- Awarded doctorate for his thesis: *De la psychose paranoïaque dans ses rapports avec la personnalité*, Paris: Le Français, 1932. Later though (1975) he will state that paranoid psychosis and personality are the same thing. One name stands out by its absence from the list of dedication: that of Clérambault. It was because of their differences that Lacan failed his agrégation. At that time Lacan declares that in his thesis he was against "mental automatism," Clérambault's theory.

Person of the Month: Jacques Lacan (1901-1981)

1933

- Because of his thesis he becomes a specialist in paranoia. The richness of his text and the multiplicity of its aspects appealed to very different circles, especially the analysis of the case of Aimée make him famous with the Surrealists. Between this year and 1939, he takes Kojève's course at the Ecole Pratique des Hautes Etudes, an "Introduction to the Reading of Hegel." He publishes *Motifs du crime paranoïque: le crime des soeurs Papin. Minotaure*.

1934

- He is appointed doctor of the Asiles, and marries Marie-Louise Blondin, mother of Caroline, Thibaut and Sibylle. While in analysis with Rudolph Loewenstein, Lacan becomes a member of La Société Psychoanalytique de Paris (SPP). Loewenstein is one of the four training analysts of the S.P.P. His analysis ends in 1939 with Loewenstein's departure to the war.

1938

- Becomes a full member of the SPP. Lectures at the S.P.P. on *De l'impulsion au complexe* where he argues for a "primordial structural stage" called "stage of the fragmented body in the development of the ego." At this stage "pure drives" (la pulsion à l'état pur) would appear in states of "horror" inseparable from a "passive beatitude." To defend his thesis, he presents two cases of patients at length. He publishes *La famille: Encyclopédie française*, Vol. 8.

1940

- Works at Val-de-Grâce, the military hospital in Paris. During the German Occupation, he does not partake in any official activity. "For several years I have kept myself from expressing myself. The humiliation of our time under the subjugation of the enemies of human kind dissuaded me from speaking up, and following Fontenelle, I abandoned myself to the fantasy of having my hand full of truths so as to better close it on them." In "Propos sur la causalité psychique," from 1946 and published in *Écrits*.

1947

- In 1946, the S.P.P. resumes its activities and Lacan, with Nacht and Lagache, takes charge of training analyses and supervisory controls and plays an important theoretical and institutional role. After visiting London in 1945 he publishes *La Psychiatrique anglaise et la guerre*, in *Evolution psychiatrique*1.

1951

- The S.P.P. begins to raise the issue of Lacan's short sessions, as opposed to the standard analytical hour. Lacan argues that his technique accelerates analysis. The underlying logic is that if the unconscious itself is timeless, it makes no sense to insist upon standard sessions. Lacan defends his use of short sessions a year later in *La psychanalyse, dialectique?*, unpublished.

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1952

- During this period of crisis at the S.P.P. (1951-52), the responsibility for the report on the 1953 conference in Rome "Fonction et champ de la parole et du langage" is assigned to Lacan. At the time he is considered to be the most productive and original theoretician of the group, all the more so because he always uses the classical terms of the Freudian orthodoxy when speaking within the S.P.P.

1953

- In his project for the statutes of the S.P.P. Lacan organizes the curriculum around four types of seminars: commentaries of the official texts (particularly Freud's), courses on controlled technique, clinical and phenomenological critique, and child analysis. A large amount of freedom of choice is left to students in training. In January Lacan is elected President of the S.P.P. Six months later he resigns to join the Société Française de Psychanalyse (S.F.P.) with D. Lagache, F. Dolto, J. Favez-Boutonier among others. (At S.F.P.'s first meeting, Lacan lectures on "Le Symbolique, l'Imaginaire et le Réel"). Nevertheless the S.F.P. is allowed to be present in Rome where Lacan delivers his report: "Fonction et champ de la parole et du langage," discourse in which, for once, remarks Lagache with humor, "he is in no way Mallarmean." On July 17 he marries Sylvia Maklès, mother of Judith. That Fall Lacan starts his seminars at the Hôpital Sainte-Anne.
- The Neurotic's Individual Myth: Psychoanalytic Quarterly, 1979.
- 1954The positive reception of the expression "the return to Freud" and of his report and discourse in Rome give Lacan the will to reelaborate all the analytical concepts. His critique of analytic literature and practice spares almost nobody. Lacan returns to Freud yet his return is a re-reading in relation with contemporary philosophy, linguistics, ethnology, biology and topology. At Sainte-Anne he held his seminars every Wednesday and presents cases of patients on Fridays.

1955

- Lacan will remain at Sainte-Anne till 1963. The first ten Seminars elaborate fundamental notions about psychoanalytic technique, the essential concepts of psychoanalysis, and even its ethics. Students give presentations yet it is the Tuesday night conferences that fed Lacan's commentaries on Wednesdays.
- Le séminaire, Livre II: Le moi dans la théorie de Freud et dans la technique de la psychanalyse, Paris: Seuil, 1978; The Seminar, Book II: The Ego in Freud's Theory and in the Technique of Psychoanalysis, 1954 - 55, New York: Norton, 1988.

1956

- "The flexibility of the S.F.P. increases Lacan's audience. Celebrities are attracted to his seminars (Hyppolite's analysis of Freud's article on Dénégation, given during the first seminar, is a well-known example). Koyré on Plato, Lévi-Strauss, Merleau-Ponty, Griaule, the ethnologist, Benvéniste among others attend his courses.

Person of the Month: Jacques Lacan (1901-1981)

- "Fetishism: The Symbolic, The Real and The Imaginary" (in collaboration with W. Granoff), in S. Lorand and M. Balint, eds., *Perversions: Psychodynamics and Therapy*, New York: Random House, 1956.

1957

- During this period Lacan writes, on the basis of his seminars, conferences and addresses in colloquia, the major texts that are found in *Écrits* in 1966. He publishes in a variety of journals, notably in *L'Évolution Psychiatrique*, which takes no account of the S.P.P. / S.F.P. conflict and *Bulletin de la Société de Philosophie*. J.B. Pontalis, Lacan's student, publishes with his consent the accounts of Seminars IV, V and VI in *Bulletin de Psychanalyse*

1958

- In the S.P.P. executive board, positions and titles are exchanged with perfect regularity until Serge Leclaire becomes secretary and then president. Yet Lacan emerges, if not the only thinker of the group, at least as the one who has the largest audience and the most audacity, especially since his practice of short sessions secures him the greatest number of analysts-in-training. A Lacan group begins to organize itself, identifiable by its language and its modes of intervention in discussions.

1959

- The first issue of *La Psychanalyse* from 1956 is entirely devoted to Lacan: it includes the Rome report and discourse with the discussions that followed with Lacan's response, the commentaries from Seminar I on Hyppolite's analysis of denegation and Lacan's translation of Heidegger's *Logos*. In a following issue Hesnard will comment on *Wo es war, soll Ich werden* that according to Lacan the "I" must come to the place where the id was: *là où était le "ça" "je" doit advenir*. This opposes the S.P.P.'s translation: "the ego must drive out the id."
- *Le séminaire, Livre VI: Le désir et son interprétation*, unpublished.

1960

- In his *Ethics* Lacan defines the true ethical foundations of psychoanalysis and constructs an ethics for our time, an ethics that would prove to be equal to the tragedy of modern man and to the "discontent of civilization" (Freud). At the roots of the ethics is desire: analysis' only promise is austere, it is the entrance-into-the-I, *l'entrée-en-Je*. "I must come to the place where the id was," where the analysand discovers, in its absolute nakedness, the truth of his desire. The end of psychoanalysis entails "the purification of desire." This text functions throughout the years as the background of Lacan's work.
- *Le séminaire, Livre VII: L'éthique de la psychanalyse*, Paris: Seuil, 1986. *The Seminar, Book VII: The Ethics of Psychoanalysis*, 1959-60, New York: Norton, 1992.

1961

- At the colloquium on dialectic organized by Jean Wahl at Royaumont the previous year, Lacan defends three assertions: psychoanalysis, insofar as it elaborates its theory from its praxis, must have a scientific status; the Freudian discoveries have radically changed the

Person of the Month: Jacques Lacan (1901-1981)

concepts of subject, of knowledge, and of desire; the analytic field is the only one from where it is possible to efficiently interrogate the insufficiencies of science and philosophy. This major intervention will appear in *Écrits* as "Subversion of the Subject and Dialectic of Desire in the Freudian Unconscious," where the subject of psychoanalysis is neither Hegel's absolute subject nor the abolished subject of science. It is a subject divided by the emergence of the signifier. As to the subject of the unconscious, it is impossible to know who speaks. It is "the pure subject of the enunciation," which the pronoun "I" indicates but does not signify. Yet the key concept is that of desire: "it is precisely because desire is articulated that it is not articulable in a signifying chain."

1962

- Meanwhile S.F.P. members want to be recognized by the I.P.A. At the Congress of Edinburgh in 1961, the I.P.A. committee recommends that the S.F.P. become a supervised study group of the I.P.A. Moreover, in a series of twenty requirements it asks the S.F.P. to ban Lacan (also Dolto and Bergé) from the analysts' training: the problem of the short sessions, which was already at stake during the first split, is back for discussion. Lacan did not "give in on his desire," and neither did the I.P.A. make concessions about its principles. He was not banned from psychoanalytic practice nor from teaching: he was denied the right to train analysts. Driven to choose between Lacan and affiliation with the I.P.A., Paris opts for the time being not to make any decision. Moreover, a motion is adopted by the Bureau of the S.F.P. stating that "any attempt to force the expulsion of one of its founder members would be discriminatory, and would offend against both the principles of scientific objectivity and the spirit of justice." Lacan and Dolto are elected president and vice-president.
- Later that year, Lacan is appointed chargé de cours at the École Pratique des Hautes Etudes (Paris) and a series director at Éditions du Seuil. The series will be known as *Le Champ freudien*: in time his Seminars and *Écrits* will be published in there.
- *Le séminaire, Livre IX: L'identification*, unpublished.

1963

- In January, Serge Leclaire succeeds Lacan as president of the S.F.P. In May, envoys from the I.P.A. visit Paris and meet with Leclaire. Not only they express doubts about Lacan's attitude towards Freud (he studies Freud's texts obsessively, in the manner of medieval scholar) they also claim that Lacan manipulates transference through the short session: he must be excluded from the training courses. At the Congress of Stockholm, in July, the I.P.A. votes an ultimatum: within three months Lacan's name has to be crossed off the list of didacticians. Everything is organized to reorient his students in training analysis towards other analysts, thanks to a committee supervised by the I.P.A. Two weeks before the expiration of the deadline fixed by the I.P.A. (October 31), Lagache, Granoff and Favez advance a motion calling for Lacan's name to be removed from the list of training analysts: the committee of didacticians of the S.F.P. gives up its courageous

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position of 1962. On November 19 a general meeting has to make a final decision on I.P.A.'s conditions regarding Lacan. Lacan then writes a letter to Leclaire announcing he will not attend the meeting because he can foresee the disavowal. Thus, on November 19, the members' majority takes the position in favor of the ban. As a result of it Leclaire and Dolto resign from office. During the night Lacan learns the decision made at the meeting: he no longer is one of the didacticians. The next day, his seminar on "The Names-of-the-Father" is to start at Sainte-Anne: he announces its end. Fragments of it are published in *L'excommunication*

1964

- Lacanians form a Study Group on Psychoanalysis organized by Jean Clavreul, until Lacan officially founds L'École Française de Psychanalyse. Soon it becomes L'École Freudienne de Paris (E.F.P.). "I hereby found the École Française de Psychanalyse, by myself, as alone as I have ever been in my relation to the psychoanalytic cause." The E.F.P. is organized on the basis of three sections: pure psychoanalysis (doctrine, training and supervision), applied psychoanalysis (the cure, casuistics, psychiatric information), and the Freudian field (commentaries on the psychoanalytic movement, articulation with related sciences, ethics of psychoanalysis).
- With Lévi-Strauss and Althusser's support, he is appointed lecturer at the École Pratique des Hautes Etudes. He begins his new seminar on "The Four Fundamental Concepts of Psychoanalysis" in January in the Dussane room at the École Normale Supérieure (in his first session he thanks the generosity of Fernand Braudel and Claude Lévi-Strauss).
- Le séminaire, Livre XI: Les quatre concepts fondamentaux de la psychanalyse, Paris: Seuil, 1973. The Seminar, Book XI: The Four Fundamental Concepts of Psychoanalysis, New York: Norton, 1981.

1965

- Having founded his own école, Lacan's renown increases considerably in his new settings at the rue d'Ulm. He keeps presenting cases of patients at Sainte-Anne; members of his école work and teach in Paris in hospitals such as Trousseau, Sainte-Anne and Les Enfants Malades; and others join universities or hospitals in the provinces (Strasbourg, Montpellier, Lille). In his seminars he explains his project to teach "the foundations of psychoanalysis" as well as his position within the psychoanalytic institution. His audience is made of analysts but also of young students in philosophy at the E.N.S., notably Jacques-Alain Miller, to whom Althusser assigns the reading of "all of Lacan" and who actually does it. It is him who asks Lacan the famous question: "Does your notion of the subject imply an ontology?"
- Le séminaire, Livre XII: Problèmes cruciaux pour la psychanalyse, unpublished.

1966

- Lacan wants to continue to train analysts, his first priority. Yet, at the same time, his teaching is addressed to the non analysts, and thus he raises these questions: Is psychoanalysis a science? Under what conditions is it a science? If it is-the "science of

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the unconscious" or a "conjectural science of the subject"-what can it, in turn, teach us about science? *Cahiers pour l'Analyse*, the journal of the Cercle d'Epistémologie at the E.N.S. is founded by Alain Grosrichard, Alain Badiou, Jean-Claude Milner, François Regnault and Jacques-Alain Miller among others. It publishes texts by Lacan in three of its issues that very year. In July Judith Lacan marries Jacques-Alain Miller.

- *Écrits*, Paris: Seuil, 1966. *Écrits, A Selection*, New York: Norton, 1977. The French version immediately became a best-seller and draws considerable public attention to the école far beyond the intelligentsia.
- *Le séminaire, Livre XIII: L'objet de la psychanalyse*, unpublished.

1967

- Lacan states in the *Acte de Fondation* that he shall undertake the direction of the école during the four years, "a direction about which nothing at present prevents me from answering." In fact Lacan remains its director until the dissolution in 1980. He divides the école into three sections: the section of pure psychoanalysis (training and elaboration of the theory, where members who have been analyzed but haven't become analysts can participate); the section for applied psychoanalysis (therapeutic and clinical, physicians who have neither completed nor started analysis are welcome); the section for taking inventory of the Freudian field (it concerns the critique of psychoanalytic literature and the analysis of the theoretical relations with related or affiliated sciences). To join the école, the candidate has to apply to an organized work-group: the cartel.
- "Proposition du 9 octobre 1967 sur le psychanalyste à l'Ecole," *Scilicet* 1.
- *Le séminaire, Livre XIV: La logique du fantasme*, unpublished.

1968

- The novelty of the proposition of 1967 lies in the modification of access to the title of Analyst of the École (A.E.), a rank superior to that of Member Analyst of the École (A.M.E.). The analysts appointed as A.E. are those who have volunteered for the *passee* and have come victorious out of the trial. The *passee* consists of testifying, in front of two *passseurs*, to one's experience as an analysand and especially to the crucial moment of passage from the position of analysand to that of analyst. The *passseurs* are chosen by their analysts (generally analysts of the école) and should be at the same stage in their analytic experience as the *passant*. They listen to him and then, in turn, they testify to what they have heard in front of a committee for approval composed of the director, Lacan, and of some A.E. This committee's function is to select the analysts of the école and to elaborate, after the selecting process, a "work of doctrine."
- *Le séminaire, Livre XV: L'acte psychanalytique*, unpublished.

1969

- The issue of the *passee* keeps invading the E.F.P.'s life. "Le quatrième groupe" is formed around those who resign from the E.F.P. disputing over Lacan's methods for the analysts' training and accreditation. Lacan takes a stand in the crisis of the university that follows May 1968: "If psychoanalysis cannot be articulated as a knowledge and taught as such, it

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has no place in the university, where it is only a matter of knowledge." The E.N.S. director, Flacelière, finds an excuse to tell Lacan that he is no longer welcome at the E.N.S. at the beginning of the academic year. Moreover, *Cahiers pour l'Analyse* has to stop its publication, but Vincennes appears as an alternative. Michel Foucault asks Lacan to create and direct at Vincennes the Department of Psychoanalysis. Lacan suggests that S. Leclaire, rather than himself, should undertake the project. Classes start in January. Thanks to Lévi-Strauss Lacan moves his seminars to the law school at the Panthéon.

- Le séminaire, Livre XVI: D'un Autre à l'autre, unpublished. In there Lacan argues that "the Name-of-the-Father is a rift that remains wide open in my discourse, it is only known through an act of faith: there is no incarnation in the place of the Other."

1970

- In his seminar *L'envers de la psychanalyse* Lacan establishes the four discourses: Master's, university's, hysteric's and the analyst's discourse. He discusses the Father of Totem and Taboo who is all love (or *jouissance*) and whose murder generates the love of the dead Father, a figure to whom he opposes both the Father presiding over the first idealization and the Father who enters the discourse of the Master and who is castrated from the origin. "The death of the father is the key to supreme *jouissance*, later identified with the mother as the aim to incest." Yet psychoanalysis is not constructed on the proposition 'to sleep with the mother' but on the death of the father as primal *jouissance*. The real father is not the biological one but he who upholds "the Real as impossible." In "Radiophonie," *Scilicet* 2/3, Lacan argues that "if language is the condition of the unconscious, the unconscious is the condition of linguistics." Freud anticipated Saussure and the Prague Circle by sticking to the letter of the patient's word, to jokes, to slips, by bringing into light the importance of condensation and displacement in the production of dreams. The unconscious states that "the subject is not the one who knows what he says." Whoever articulates the unconscious must say that it is either that or nothing.
- Le séminaire, Livre XVII: *L'envers de la psychanalyse*, Paris: Seuil, 1991.

1971

- One novelty in Lacan's teaching is his return to the hysteric with Dora and *la Belle Bouche erre* (the Beautiful Mouth wanders and an allusion to the beautiful butcher's wife analyzed by Freud and carried on in *La direction de la cure* Three questions: the relation between *jouissance* and the desire for unfulfilled desire; the hysteric who 'makes the man' (or the Master) insofar as she constructs him as "a man prompted by the desire to know;" a new conception of the analytic treatment as a "hysterization of discourse."
- Le séminaire, Livre XVIII: D'un discours qui ne serait pas du semblant, unpublished.

1972

- As to Lacan "in psychoanalysis (as well as in the unconscious) man knows nothing of woman, and woman nothing of man. The phallus epitomizes the point in myth where the sexual becomes the passion of the signifier." For him the structure is the body of the symbolic: "there is no sexual rapport, implies no sexual rapport that can be formulated in

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the structure." There is "no appropriate signifier to give substance to a formula of sexual rapport."

- "L'Étourdit" Scilicet 4.
- Le séminaire, Livre XIX: ... ou pire, unpublished.

1973

- In Encore Lacan argues that woman would only enter in the sexual rapport quoad matrem (as a mother) and man quoad castrationem (phallic jouissance). Hence there is no real rapport and love as well as speech make up for his absence. And he adds: "There is woman only as excluded by the nature of words,...for man she is on the side of truth and man does not know what to do with it." In Le savoir psychanalytique from 1972, Lacan argues: "I am not saying that speech exists because there is no sexual rapport. I am not saying either that there is no sexual rapport because speech is there. But there is no sexual rapport because speech functions on that level that analytic discourse reveals to be specific to speaking human beings. The importance, the preeminence of what makes sex a semblance, the semblance of men and women. Between man and love, there is woman; between man and woman, there is a world; between man and the world, there is a wall. What is at stake in a serious love relationship between a man and a woman is castration. Castration is the means of adaptation to survival."
- Le séminaire, Livre XX: Encore, Paris: Seuil, 1975. The Seminar, Book XX: On Feminine Sexuality, the Limits of Love and Knowledge: Encore, New York: Norton, 1998.

1974

- The Vincennes Department of Psychoanalysis is renamed "Le Champ freudien;" Lacan, director, and Jacques-Alain Miller, president. In Télévision, Paris: Seuil, (the text is based on a broadcast on the ORTF produced by Benoît Jacquot) Lacan makes his famous statement: "I always speak the truth. Not the whole truth, because there's no way to say it all. Saying it all is materially impossible: words fail. Yet it is through this very impossibility that the truth holds to the real." Television, New York: Norton, 1990.
- Le séminaire, Livre XXI: Les non-dupes errent, unpublished.

1975

- Lacan travels to the United States where he lectures at Columbia University (Auditorium, School of International Affairs), general discussion at Yale University (Kanner Seminar and Law School Auditorium) followed by another general discussion at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
- Le séminaire, Livre XXII: R.S.I. in Ornicar?

1976

- Lacan posits that the notion of structure does not allow to create a common field uniting linguistics, ethnology and psychoanalysis. Linguistics has no hold over the unconscious because "it leaves as a blank that which produces effects in the unconscious: the objet a, the very focus of the analytical act, and of any act. "Only the discourse that is defined in

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the terms of psychoanalysis manifests the subject as other giving him the key to his division, whereas science, by making the subject a master, conceals him to the extent the the desire that gives way to him bars him from me without remedy." There is only one myth in Lacan's discourse: the Freudian Oedipus complex.

- Le séminaire, Livre XXIII: Le sinthome, in Ornicar?

1977

- Le séminaire, Livre XXIV: L'insu que sait de l'une bévue s'aile à mourre, in Ornicar?

1978

- Le séminaire, Livre XXV: Le moment de conclure. One session only published as "Une pratique de bavardage," Ornicar?

1979

- Le séminaire, Livre XXVI: La topologie et le temps, unpublished.

1980

- On January 9, Lacan announces the dissolution of the EFP in a letter addressed to members and published in Le Monde. He asks those who wish to continue working with him to state their intentions in writing. He receives over one thousand letters within a week. On February 21, Lacan announces the founding of "La Cause freudienne." In July he attends an international conference in Caracas. "I have come here before launching my Cause freudienne. It is up to you to be Lacanians if you wish; I am Freudian."
- Le séminaire, Livre XXVII: Dissolution, in Ornicar?

1981

- September 9, Lacan dies in Paris.

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Role of Play Therapy on Aggression and Learning Disabilities in Students: A Quasi-Experimental Design

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ABSTRACT

Objective: This study was performed to evaluate the effectiveness of play therapy on children aggressive and spelling disorders. **Method:** Quasi-experimental design is a type of pre-exam and posttest with control group. The Samples of this research consisted of 24 male and female students who were selected according to the entering criteria of this study and based on the available sampling method in the second district of Tehran. In this study was used an aggressiveness Shahim questionnaire and self-made dictation test to collect the data. **Results:** Data analysis indicated that play therapy was reduced the aggression of children in post test of experimental group and could improve their spelling disorder. Overall, results showed the importance and effectiveness of play therapy on aggression and spelling disorder. **Conclusion:** The results indicated that the uses of play therapy as an effective method and without adverse effects are useful in clinical centers of reducing aggression and improving spelling disorder.

Keywords: *Learning Disorders, Play Therapy, Aggression, Spelling Disorder*

Class children make up the bulk of the world's population, so that in developing countries reaches approximately 50% the contribution of this group population. Over the past few decades, consideration and transformation social-emotional of children grow. Previously, researchers believed that the problem with children is caused by the failure of their development and this group of children will solve their problems. Although, the fact is a development process that is always quick changes cannot be without behavioral impermanence but it is clear that many children are eligible to emotional and behavioral problems in the early years of childhood which continue during the time and perhaps into adulthood and even as adults (Narimani, and Abul Soleimani, 1391 Quotes of Malek, Hassanzadeh and Targari, 1392, Gimpel and Halland, 2002 Quotes of Barzegar, 1392). One of the problems is anger and aggression.

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Aggression called the Physical and emotional harmful behavior towards others which is taken intentionally (Ballard, Rightel, and Rachel Fleming, 2004) and the most common problems of children and adolescents and is one of the important reasons referred to counseling and psychotherapy. Aggression causes many problems to individual (such as poor self-concept and poor academic performance) and between individual (for example, rejection by peers) that child's life involve aggressive (Goodwin, PC and Grace, 2003 Quotes Rajabpour, Makvand Hosseini and Rafienia, 1391) in the early years of life. In addition to aggression, learning disorders is other problems which arise in childhood period. DSM-V learning Disorders considers as a neurotic – growing disorder that prevents ability to learn or use of specific education skills (such as writing, reading or arithmetic) which is the foundation and basic of learning (Malloy, 2013)., Among the disorders of learning, writing and spelling disorder is one of the interesting discussion, that many of the experts and psychologists pay attention to this case in the world. writing has referring to the process of conveying an idea on paper. Writing is the most excellent language skills and most complex as a means of expression that involve diverse skills Such as mechanical writing skills (such as handwriting, spelling, and punctuation), Language skills (such as the meaning of words and grammar) and thinking skills (for example, organize and make the communication between the content). The term dictated disorder also is used for children that write very bad in spite of normal intelligence (Alulak et al., 2000; quoted of Galilee and Jalil Abkar and Ashoori, 1392; Weeks Zrayl, 1994; quoted Abdi, creamy and Hatami, 1391). According to the writing and spelling requires skills in various fields can be concluded that failure in this field can also be caused by a failure in different sectors related to the ability of such failure, neurological, visual or hearing problems, inadequate education (Izeh, Arnold, Bartlyng and Scott-Kern, 2012), the problem in auditory perception (Scott-Kern and Broder, 2010), visual and auditory attention deficit (Bos, Tayntitouttr and ValdUYUS, 2007; Mngyny et al., 2010), problems with phonological and language, phonological awareness, phonological memory, phonological assembly and naming speed (Lewis, Ferry hereto, and Taylor, 2002; Plaza and Cohen, 2004), difficulty in visual memory, auditory and movement (Nathan, 2009 Quotes of Salamat ,MogtadaI ,Abedi and Hosseinkhanzadeh, 1392. If such problems get duration and severity in children Cause behavioral and emotional disorders for students, Families and societyand cause the loss of human capital and the country's economy (Azar niuoshan, to research and GHobari BONAB, 1391). Thus the only way to deal with this condition is diagnosed and treated on time. Among the various treatment methods have been proposed to reduce aggression and improve spelling disorder, Play therapy is the best and most widely used approach. play is the natural child's world and allows children to use their creativity and while the child's imagination growth their skill, agility and power of emotional, physical and cognitive. children learn about themselves and other things through play and thus interaction with their around world at an early age. As well as play therapy is an advanced and evolved intervention for children. Play and play therapy is one of the ways to bring useful and significant results and improve the balance of emotional and impulsive behaviors in a positive way

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(Zolmajd, Borjali and Arian, 1386; BARZEGAR, 1392, Homur and Morrison, 2008; Takin and Sezer, 2010; Ginsburg, 2007).

Studies was conducted in this area by Sbaqyan Rad and Fathi (2014), Hayati, Ismail, M. Nikravan and Faramarzi (2014); Darzi Ramandi, Daneshfar and SHojai (2012) Raie, Blanco, Sullivan and Holiman (2009); BARZEGAR, pour Mohammad Reza TAJRISH and Behnia (1391); Zolmajid et al. (1386); Qadri, Asghari Moghaddam and SHAIRI (1385) that was indicated play therapy is effective in reducing aggression. as well as the studies of Khaledi, Walid Pak , Mirkhan and Atay (2014), Abdi et al. (1391); Parker and Bagrly (2005); Salamat and colleagues (1392) suggested that the treatment is also effective in improving of spelling disorder, because the game gives an opportunity to children to express freely their feelings and in fact, compensate their problems by use of symbols (Bakhsheshi and Mir Hossein, 1393).

Therefore, due to the fact that today's children are the leaders of tomorrow, as well as the lack of their health import Irreparable damages to individuals, families and the community, paying attention to health and mental health is especially important ; because their health cause more effective and social progress. So the main question is that has Play Therapy the effective to reduce aggression and improve spelling disorder with cognitive behavioral approach?

METHOD

The present study is Quasi-experimental pretest-posttest with control group due to the nature and its objectives. The study population was boys and girls of three primary schools (one boy elementary schools and two primary schools for girls) from the second district of Tehran. Among of them, students who are aggressive, according to the corresponding of teacher's idea and aggression Questionnaire received the score of one standard deviation which is above the average and also has been diagnosed the spelling disorder. A total of 24 subjects are available by sampling method and were chosen according to the criteria for entering the study. the four members of the experimental group was not willing to cooperate; therefore, eight people were present of each group to continue research. Entering the criteria of study: The age range of 7-12 years. Having normal intelligence and lack of mental disorder in range of 7-12 age years.

Instruments

Relational and overt aggression scale of Shahim: This questionnaire constructed by Shahim (1385) and its reliability and validity have been evaluated among children of Shiraz city and has 21 items in the field of relational aggression and obvious. The criterion of questionnaire is Likert-type and is rated as (rarely = 1, 2 = once a month, once a week = 3, most days = 4). The questionnaire will be completed by the teacher and questions adjusted that encompasses varying degrees of severity of out breaking aggression And are graded based on the amount of out breaking behavior. The questionnaire has three physical aggression subscale (7 items), aggressive theological reaction and hyperactive (6 items) and relational aggression (8 items). The

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correlation coefficient between the items and the total score of physical aggression Were variable from 0.47 to 0.82. The correlation coefficient between the Items of aggression factors is dependency and the total score was variable 0. 67 to 0.84 and the correlation coefficient between the Items of aggression factors is reflexive and the hyperactivity has been variable of 0.63 to 0.2. The cut off point for the diagnosis of the aggressive child in each sub-scale is one standard deviation above the mean. Cranach's alpha for the whole questionnaire is 0.91 and very desirable. Cronbach's alpha coefficient for physical aggression, relational, and hyperactive reflexive vary respectively from 0.85, 0.89, and 0.83 (Shahim, 1385).

Researcher- made test of dictation: Spelling disorder has been determined of students based on tests which conducted by researchers. For this purpose was taken Spelling test of students based on their educational level and Persian books.

Implementation method

In the present study is used purposefully Play therapy with Cognitive Behavioral school of Susan M. Nell and systematic approach with pragmatism to reduce aggression and improve students' spelling disorder ,In which use Montessori method of learning tools that provides necessary facilities to strengthen all senses except taste and smell, After determining the test group, get the age difference between students in the experimental group, Initially they divided into two groups in terms of age and for each group 10 session was held the workshop purposeful play for 2 hours. 10 sessions of play therapy is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: The content of therapeutic play sessions

sessions	content	tool
1	Detecting levels of performance students, fellowshipping students to each other, strengthening relationship between Member, balance and stability of improvements, Increase the level of spatial awareness, Increasing hand-eye and foot-eye coordination, increasing awareness of movement and touch	Balance board
2	Learning new skills and normal communicate , achieving Information about themselves and their problems, Progression of pursuing eye ability, progression of sidelong situation and orientation, The ability to distinguish and decode visual, eye and hand coordination	Game Tracker marbles on the inclined surface
3	Energy depletion and reducing the impulsive behavior, The development of coordination and dexterity, the coordination of eye and hand, eye and foot	Game Tire
4	Treatment is focused on self-control, Increasing accuracy and focus and strengthens the fingers	Bolts play

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sessions	content	tool
5	Teaching strategies about methods of dealing with people, Skills training for students' daily performance, progression the Visual Perception of Images · detected the differences and similarities, improvements in transport patterns and foot-eye coordination	ladder-taking strolls play
6	The student discovers the importance of success in performing a task, Increasing hand-eye coordination, Growth self concept and help children to jumping off the ground	plunger (by jumping Play to touch the objects)
7	Development of hand movement coordination and the balance, The development of body image and body awareness, skills development sequence, evokes and auditory discrimination	Bending play (hands and feet have to put on the Intended geometric shapes)
8	Identify their knowledge, Help to identify cognitive distortions and switching maladaptive thinking with adaptive thinking	Tangram play (the picture shown and the person must complete image with the help of visual memory)
9	Acceptance of responsibility, Express the interaction between thoughts - emotions and student behavior, Increasing self-concept ·Energy depletion and spatial awareness, The development of hand-eye coordination	Throwing game footy
10	Enhance and reinforce the skills to deal with negative emotions And problem-solving skills according to chronological age, the flexibility Progress, development of social reaction , The development of muscle strength	tubes Play

FINDINGS

Descriptive statistics of studied variables is provided according to groups and two pre-test and post-test in the table below (2).

Table 2: Measures of descriptive variables of both control and experimental groups in pre-test and post-test

group			Experiment				Control	
Variables	Pretest		post-test		pretest		post-test	
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Physical aggression	11.08	2.01	8.50	1.51	13.75	2.25	11.08	2.27
Relational Aggression	22.08	2.05	16.62	3.54	22.75	2.28	22.08	4.18
Reactive aggression	11.16	1.56	7.25	1.16	13	2.61	11.16	1.94
Spelling	13.33	0.74	15.62	1.59	12.12	1.24	13.33	1.07

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of play therapy on aggression and spelling disorder was used the multivariate covariance analysis. One of the assumptions of this test is equal covariance matrix that to check this assumption was used of Box test. The results of this test did not show any violation assumptions ($P > 0.05$, $F=0.812$ $M=11.16$ box). Another assumption of homogeneity is the error variance that to check these assumptions was used Levene test. The results of this test did not show any violation of these assumptions (Physical aggression: $P > 0.05$ $f = 0.01$ Relational Aggression: $P > 0.05$ $f = 0.865$ Dictation disorder: $P > 0.05$ $f = 3.271$. Results of variance analyzes for comparison of averages dictation disorder and aggression in post-test with elimination of the pre-test showed a significant difference on the groups ($P < 0.001$ $f = 8.120$ -Wilks Lambda=0.253). For closer examination, univariate(single variable) analysis of covariance was performed which results get in Table 3.

Table 3: Results of univariate analysis variance to assess group differences in aggression and impaired dictation by controlling the pre-test

The dependent variable	Sum of squares	Degrees of freedom	Mean squared	The amount of F	The significance level
Physical aggression	26.733	1	26.733	6.65	0.011
Relational Aggression	84.693	1	84.693	4.66	0.023
Reactive aggression	26.60	1	26.60	13.36	0.040
Spelling	18.450	1	18.450	8.62	0.003

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There is a significant difference between the studied groups according to the table above in the dependent variables including physical aggression, relational, reaction and dictate. Thus, were made according to descriptive and inferential statistics, play therapy is effective in reducing aggression and improving spelling disorder.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of play therapy with cognitive behavioral in reducing aggression and improving the spelling disorder. The results indicated that play therapy reduces aggression on the post-test experimental group and has been able to improve their spelling disorder. This finding is consistent with the findings of Sabagiyan Rad and Fathi (2014); Hayati and colleagues (2014); Darzi Ramandi and colleagues (2012) Rai and colleagues (2009); Barzegar and colleagues (1391); Zolmajd and colleagues (1386); Qadri, Asghari Moghaddam and Shaeeri (1385). The researchers concluded that play therapy is effective on reducing aggression; as well as consistent with the findings of the studies, Khalidiand colleagues (2014), Abdi and colleagues (1391); Parker and Bagrly (2005); SALAMAT and colleagues (1392). The researchers concluded that this treatment is also effective in improving spelling disorder because the game gives an opportunity to children to express freely their feelings and compensate their problems by use symbols and find the way to solve them and situations that may be encountered, compensate through the game. Game cause to connect child's inner thoughts with the outside world and causes the child can control external objects or can manipulate and change them; as well as the game allows the child to show his threatening experiences (Bakhsheshi and Mir Hossein, 1393, Abdi et al., 1391; Sabaghian Rad and Fathi, 2014). Play therapy is safe and suitable for children and adolescents. Because in some cases, children having trouble when express their feelings verbally and cannot express their feelings through words as well. So this times the expression of feelings in the form of symbolic and games, more suitable guide to infer the feelings of children toward Words. Play therapy is a method by which natural means of expression children's mode that game to be used as a treatment modality to help children to pressure their feelings under control. Play therapy is a form of helping interaction and Communication Bridge between the child and the therapist through symbolic communication in the game, searching for ways to reduce child's emotional turmoil. The treatment is assumed that children use of materials game as directly or symbol for out flowing their feelings, and the experiences that they are not able to express their meaning through words. In this method children experience acceptance, emotional discharge, reducing the painful effects; reorienting the momentum and the thrill of corrected experiencing during interpersonal interactions with the therapist. Also game allows children to bridging the gap between experience and understanding and perceptions and by means provide the tools for vision, learning, problem-solving and coping strategies (Azarniuoshanet al., 1391;ll RAY, Rein and Jones, 2005). In explaining the effectiveness of cognitive-behavioral play therapy in reducing aggression can be said that children learn in play therapy whose behavior is a choice and thereby also choose the consequences of their behavior, This information will help them to

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strengthen self-control behavior. game is a natural and enjoyable activity which essentially constitutes cognitive development, emotional - social and psycho - motor of child. During the game different forces has grown such as agility, attention, perception and formed children's personality and many changes happening in their properties. Game increases the curiosity and the power of innovation and also causes touch a real sense of character and experience of reality. Game provides the opportunity for children to be able to offer a picture of your inner world and facilitates the expression of excitement for children. the major performance of play therapy Solve any kind offensive of children that interferes with effective functioning of the environment. The play therapy provides a safe environment for children, in which children grow emotions, stress, feelings of insecurity, aggression and express their repressed fears (Carlson and Arthur, 1999; Jafari, Mohammad, Khanbany, Farid and Chitty, 2011; Darzi Ramnd and et al., 2012; Toozandehjani, Beheshtian and Ghajar 2014; Ganji, Z., Khuda Bakhsh and Kraskian, 1390). Communication in game room is in this case that children express their negative feeling to adult empathy (the therapist) through the game and that person reflects and accepts the provided feeling of child when this feelings was accepted by the therapist; other does not have the power and intensity as before and reduced its effects on children's behavior and started in positive terms after this phase and mixed with a child's play and the child begins to learn new skills. In other words we can say that child learns to deal with social needs in an appropriate manner through expression or aggressive behavior in play room, as well as the presence of therapist empathy and understanding that are far more important along than aggressive behavior. Also skills of children grow during game communication and in such a framework can refresh the objective and important event and are externalized their emotions and feeling and gain new insights and choose more adapted ways of solving(rai et al., 2009; Barzegarand colleagues, 1391). In explaining the effectiveness of cognitive-behavioral of play therapy on improving spelling disorder Can be said that just as writing requires to skills in various fields, Failure in writing and spelling disorders can also be related to the potential failure such as neurological disorders, The problems of visual or hearing impairment, inadequate education (Izeh et al., 2012), problems with auditory perception (Scott-Kern and Broder, 2010), attention deficit visual and auditory (Bos et al., 2007; mangini and colleagues, 2010), problems with phonological and language, phonological awareness, phonological memory, phonological assembly And naming speed (Lewis et al., 2002; Plaza and Cohen, 2004), difficulty in visual memory, auditory and movement (Nathan, 2009Quotes of Salamat et al., 1392). It is assumed that children who have difficulty in spelling, and also have memory failure that can be solved by Cognitive-behavioral treatment methods of game And improve the academic performance of person. In this method, procedure is that the therapist is trying to determine the principles and methods that use all types of individual's memory and strengthen them. Memory Improvement will be strengthened to improve spelling of student. If visual memory of these students be strengthened ,they will be able to monitor their writing process this means that will be able to determine their own writing. these students can recognize their spelling error by help the teacher and receive correct approach and learn them by practice and generalize to other situations. In other words, the game helps children to achieve

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new competence that leads to high confidence and also to face future challenges, (Khaled and colleagues, 2014; SAlamat and colleagues, 1392; Abdi and colleagues, 1391; Ginsburg, 2007). Overall results showed that cognitive-behavioral of play therapy is effective in reducing aggression and improving spelling disorder and Considering that children of this country would be the decision makers in future day, , taking into consideration their mental health and taking steps to improve their health status seems necessary. For this reason it is recommended that future research examine the effects of other techniques play therapy of these disorders.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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The Relation between Morality and Organizational Commitment of the Teachers with the Training Quality Level of Students in the City of Tehran Girls' Secondary Schools

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ABSTRACT

Introduction: Having two indices of professional morality and organizational commitment from teacher's side is effective in the optimum output of the educational system. **Purpose:** The present research was done with the purpose of examining the relation between morality and organizational commitment of teachers with the quality of educational services of students. **Method:** For this means in the format of a comparative design in the area of descriptive studies and in terms of functional nature, five thousand and seven hundred and seventy five students (N=5775) and 385 teachers (ages 26-58 with a mean age of: 38/11) resident of Tehran were chosen by the multistage cluster sampling method. The method of gathering of the data was done by survey. In terms of assessment of organizational commitment the Allen and Meyer questionnaire, in terms of evaluation of organizational behavior Kadar questionnaire and to assess the index of quality of education the researcher's questionnaire were used. The data gathered were analyzed by the Pearson correlation test, F test and multivariable regression test. **Findings:** The analysis of the data was favorable with the history of research showing a relation between morality ($r=0/59$) from one side and behavioral commitment ($r=0/47$) from another side with the component of quality of education ($p<0/0001$), in other words behavior and behavioral commitment have explained each respectively 0/408 and 0/311 of the variance of the quality of education. **Conclusion:** The result of this research can be functionally used in the design of massive educational perspectives.

Keywords: Morality, Organizational Commitment, Educational Services Quality, Teaching.

Today morality is one of the discussions under consideration of researchers and is the necessity and need of a healthy society. Some of the behavior of managers and employees are effected by moral values. Weak organizational morality has an adverse effect on attitude, individual and

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group function of the organization (Alvani et al, 2010). Organizational morality in fact is the description and assessment of rooted values and the search for mechanisms of morality of functions (Carolyn and Kris, 2006). Another important component which makes an organization become the head of another organization is organizational commitment. Thereby considering the category of commitment and loyalty of human resources towards organization is one of the serious concerns of organizations' managers (Bagheri et al, 2009). According to the definition of Meyer and Allen it has three major components, emotional, normative and continuous. Emotional commitment implies the attachment of individual feelings to the organization. Continuous commitment contains the definition of willingness to stay in the organization and normative commitment implies to the obligation of feelings towards the organization (Meyer and Herskovich, 2001).

The committed force makes the path of growth and ascendancy of the organization possible. From the emotional view point organizational commitment is considered to be an emotional dependency. According to this method, the individual who is extremely committed obtains its identity from the organization, participates in the organization and blends with it and enjoys being its member (Saroghi, 1996). Committed employees often have relation and connection with the values of the organization (Valentine et al, 2002). One of the effective organizations on the body of cultural and training of the society, is education and training. The grand position of this organization, makes its need for the committed and moral organizational force obvious. The organization of education and training in order to reach its goals, meaning the training and education of people is in need of activist teachers, committed and compassionate, committed teachers perform their duties to the best form and cause increased efficiency of the educational system.

Even with the width of organization of this organization in various levels of management, unfortunately in the direction of reform and improvement of the educational processes effective measures have not formed. These measures need more consideration than before for the quality of education (Yadegarzadeh, 2000). The quality of education, is the specifications of an educational system which can be favorable or unfavorable which this matter, shows the relativity of this concept (Yamni, 1995). According to the last report of the institution of research of Pirls and Timss the position of Iran in the year 2001 from among the 35 participating countries was in the 32nd place and in the year 2006 from among 45 world educational systems was in the 40th place. According to this estimation the average performance of Iranian students in the year interval of 2001 to 2006 has had an improvement of 7 scores but this improvement is not meaningful in terms of statistical indices (Karimi, 2006).

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Therefore regarding the studies performed in relation with organizational commitment and behavior of employees, it shows the importance and bold role of human resources as the most valuable capitals of each organization. Organizational behavior is an effective factor in the function of organizations. On the other hand commitment is one of the major parts of behavior such that consideration and institutionalizing of moral behavior in the organization causes increase in the commitment of employees, individual and organizational growth and ascendancy thereafter. Organizational good behavior has a positive and excellent effect on activities and results of the organization. Therefore commitment is the key factor in the relation between individual and the organization, the committed people adhere more to the values and goals of the organization and play an active role in the organization and leave the organization lesser and have lesser absence.

The organization of education and training as the largest governmental organization for the exact performance of developmental programs and its improvement and also improvement of the educational services quality needs teachers committed and with morals, in fact increase in the quality of education in schools is achieved in addition to considering the resources and equipment, from the major factor in the system of education meaning the "teacher". Teachers can play the most important role in the availability of appropriate conditions for the activities of learning. Therefore, considering organizational behavior and commitment teachers can open appropriate paths in terms of improving quality of education of schools. As a result in this research we will examine the relation between organizational morality and commitment of teachers with the quality of educational services of students at the city of Tehran girls' secondary school.

Ethical Principles

In this study, the informed consent was obtained without coercion, threat, enticement and seduction and their decision to refuse or accept to participate in the study were respected. It was also tried that the research methods do not contradict with the religious and cultural principles of the participants and the participants were respected in all stages of design, implementation and reporting in terms of human dignity, respect and protection of their physical and mental integrity so that conducting the research would not delay in the process of medical care for the participants.

Statistical society and estimate of sample size

The current research has two statistical societies. 1- All of the woman teachers of the city of Tehran public secondary schools which have education higher than diploma which are thousand people in total. 2- All girl students of the city of Tehran public secondary schools, which are in total one hundred and twelve persons. Estimate of sample size with respect to the unlimited society and existing of the scale of Likert was calculated. Therefore in this research sample size

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was considered to be 385 persons. The sample size of the students was 15 students per each teacher which in total reached 5775 person.

Table 1- estimate of the sample size

Size of society	Unlimited
Precision of estimate	0/05
Sample size	385

METHOD

Data collection

This research in terms of functional purpose and in terms of method of performance is descriptive-survey. The method of sampling was random and from the stratified cluster type. The method of gathering of data in this research was of the field method in which questionnaires used were distributed among teachers and students of schools under research. The questionnaires were completed in person and were gathered by the research performers. Thereafter the data were composed and analyzed by the SPSS software. For the purpose of gathering of data in this research the following questionnaires were used.

Instruments

- **Organizational commitment questionnaire:** This questionnaire is codified with the purpose of examination of the organizational commitment dimensions. In this tools, organizational commitment with respect to the three dimensions of emotional, continuous commitment and normative commitment in the spectrum of Likert and in the form of five degree scale is examined and has high validity, the reliability coefficient of the complete questionnaire according to Cronbach's alpha calculations was estimated to be 0/97 and the coefficients related to the components of emotional commitment, continuous commitment and normative commitment were estimated 0/86, 0/85 and 0/92 respectively (Meyer and Allen, 1997).

- **Organizational morality questionnaire**

- **Educational services quality questionnaire:** For the purpose of examination of the index of education quality the item questionnaire developed by the researcher was used. The Cronbach's alpha of this questionnaire was calculated to be 0/944.

RESULTS

Results in two areas of descriptive in the format of presentation of average and standard deviation and also inferential in the format of Pearson's correlation parametric test, F test and

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stepwise regression analysis in the software SPSS environment edition 19 was composed and analyzed which are shown in the tables below.

Demographic features of the participants

79,5 percent of people responding had Bachelor's degree. About 20 percent of the people participating in the research had Master's degree and above and 0,5 percent of the participants also had Associate degree or lower. Most category of abundance in terms of employment history is related to the history of 11-15 years with 94/8 (365 person out of 385 person responsive), in other words about 94,8 percent of people responsive have history of employment of 11 to 15 years.

Average and standard deviation

Table 2- Average and standard deviation of participant's scores in the triple components of research

index	average	SD
Morality	11/27	1/17
Organizational commitment	14/94	2/01
Educational quality	16/23	3/11

Table 2, shows the average and standard deviation of the testable scores in the three components of Morality, organizational commitment and educational quality.

Pearson's correlation test

Table 3- Results of the Pearson's correlation test

Predictor variable	Criterion variable	Coefficient of correlation	P-value
Educational quality	Morality	0/59	0/000
	Organizational commitment	0/47	0/000

With respect to the results in table 3, Pearson's correlation test show that between the two components of behavior with educational quality and also organizational commitment with quality of education there is a meaningful correlation ($p < 0/0001$). For the purpose of examination of each component's share in explaining variance of the index of educational quality, step by step regression analysis test was used, the results of this test is presented in table 5:

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Analysis of the step by step regression

Table 4: Results of the step by step multivariable regression analysis test

Predictor variable	Criterion of variable	B	sig	R ²
Educational quality	Morality	0/408	0/000	0/719
	Organizational commitment	0/311	0/000	

F=16/73

Calculation of the equation of the regression line

The results of the step by step multivariable regression analysis test show that the components of Morality and organizational commitment respectively 0/408 and 0/311 and in total 0/719 of the variance of the index of educational quality are explained in the sample under research. The function of multivariable regression of educational quality in terms of dimensions of Morality and organizational commitment are as follows:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + B X1_i + B X2_i + u_i$$

$$Y_i = 7 + 0/408 X1_i + 0/311 X2_i$$

DISCUSSION

The study viewed was an effort in the examination and prediction of the indices beneath the quality of education. The findings showed that the two components of Morality and commitment of teachers each in a meaningful way explain part of the variance of quality of educational services in students. About the importance and relation among the indicated indices it has been mentioned in previous studies. Most of the history of research of committed organizational professors means the story of the meaningful positive relation between the two indices of Morality and quality of education. This appropriateness of performance for the committed organizational professors in other words, is teaching of quality for them, for a better prediction can be programmed to improve the learning of students. These findings with the results of several research activities performed are favorable on this issue. In Schroder's research (2008) between the component of organizational commitment and quality of education a meaningful positive relation was obtained. In another study Nazem and Ghaed Mohammady (2009) reported that organizational commitment can predict the quality of educational services. The results of the study of Rejaipour and Bahrami (2006) also express the relation between the mentioned indices. Also findings of this research is favorable with the results of the studies of Tomositis (2006) and Smank and coworkers (2009).

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On the other hand and in more extended dimensions we can say that organizational commitment in total has a meaningful relation with the spectrum of variables increasing efficiency and performance. In this matter the results of the studies of Boatman and Strawser (1984), Shawni (1997), Bowlin (1994), Ruygar (1991), Vedford (1982), Ixe (2005), Chung and Lee (2006), Linguard and Lin (2004) show variable performance of organizational commitment and its relation with variables increasing efficiency. In this respect eligibility and teaching experience of professors with the students' educational improvement have a linear positive relation (Hanooshk et al, 2005). On the other hand research evidences express the relation between components of behavior with educational quality index. A relation which can effect massive educational strategies and change the efficiency of teaching. In this respect the results of the current study show a meaningful positive relation between the two mentioned indices. These findings are favorable with the results of previous studies regarding the relation between behavior and educational quality. For example, the current findings are favorable with the studies of Rahimi and Aghababai (2012), Ekvasi (2004) and Witz (2010) regarding the relation between professional behaviors of professors with the quality of educational services and are unfavorable with the results of research of Valentine (2008). One of the reasons of this unfavorability can be due to the difference in the statistical society under study. According to the findings obtained we can say that the index of morality in the members of the science committee is an effective component on quality output of educational services in students. What was considered was a study performed with the purpose of examining the relation between the two index of behavior and organizational commitment with organizational services quality and the results expressing a meaningful share of each of the two components of behavior and commitment in predicting the levels of educational quality. The mentioned findings can have an application aspect and can be efficient in adjusting designs of the advancement of the educational system and understanding of the challenges related to it.

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

Considering that organizational behavior has the most effect on the continuous commitment of employees hence it is suggested for the means of increasing of continuous commitment the moral foundations be considered. Emphasize organizational moral principles in the programs of improving of the organization (examination and training of employees) and their development for all employees in any level. Integration of ethical standards in the organization and also development of ethical charters.

LIMITATIONS

The most important limitation of research which arise from the specific criteria of the behavioral sciences research, are limitations for example of written questionnaire, lack of cooperation and subjective impressions of testable which effect the correct response to the questions.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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A Comparative Study of Punishment in Buddhist and Western Educational Psychology

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to offer a comparative examination of punishment methods in Buddhist and western education psychology. The Buddhist concept of punishment is more humanistic than punishment in criminology and in western educational psychology. Although the concept ‘punishment’ in western education psychology is somewhat similar to its Buddhist counterpart, I argue there are some lessons that can be taken from Buddhist psychology to direct punishment theories in western psychology towards a more humanistic approach. Most of mental punishments used in western psychology can identify in Buddhist psychology too. Therefore, it can be argued that some punitive methods in western psychology were not newly introduced by western psychologists. When conducting this research, it is expected to do it from critical and analytical perspectives in combination with descriptive and explanatory methods from the study of teachings in *Sutta Pitaka* and *Vinaya pitaka*. Furthermore, research works of previous scholars are examined as secondary sources to direct the research paper towards a more critical approach. This research would contribute to the enhancement of the knowledge of teachers, principals, curriculum developers, theory makers and psychologists, at both practical and theoretical level, to use punishment in a proper way and improve the quality of education while children receive and prevent them from dropping out of school.

Keywords: *Buddhism, Buddhist Psychology, Education Psychology, Punishment*

The concept of “punishment” is a controversial issue in both western and eastern school systems due to the strengthening of human rights at a deeper level compared to the past. However, it is not a concept totally omitted from the school system since it is used by teachers and school authorities as a mean of disciplining of students. “The Buddhist concept of punishment”, which is based on a humanistic approach, has been influential in many ways when re-arranging the punishment process in the present educational system towards a more humanistic approach due

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to integration with each other over several decades. However, there are commonalities and differences in the concept of punishment in Buddhist and western education psychology. As I believe, there are still many lessons that can be taken from Buddhist psychology to direct the punishment process in the present educational system towards a more humanistic approach than what is the case at present. Moreover, this kind of research would help teachers, principles, curriculum developers, theory makers and psychologists to use punishment methods at a practical as well as a theoretical level properly to implement quality education without damaging the personality of the child.

The Concept Of Punishment In Buddhism

The action taken against those who violate *Vinaya* rules can be considered as punishment according to the teachings in *Vinaya Pitaka*. The process of Punishment in Buddhism aims to moralize disciples in order to stop mal practices which obstruct their way to *Nibbana*, is more psychological than physical. The main function of punishment in Buddhism is to help disciples reach *Nibbana*, i.e. punishment is given in order to prevent them from engaging into practices that would raise obstacles in their efforts to achieve *Nibbana*. The history of the concept of punishment in Buddhism starts from the end of the first 20 years of the Buddha's enlightenment. During the first 20 years the Buddha did not want to impose law as well as to punish his disciples as they had been behaved well towards the prescribed way to *Nibbana*. Those disciples aimed only at the ultimate goal than any other worldly things which obstruct one's way to *Nibbana*. As a result of that, the Buddha had to preach only *Ovada Patimokkhha* in order to remind them of the characteristics of a monk who follows his teachings and shows the way they should practice in order to become an ideal *Shramana*. Once, the Buddha said that *Bikkhus* who lived during these first twenty years made him happy due to their strong discipline and it was enough for them to be reminded of the nature of a *Shramana* to cultivate their spiritual personality (MNI: 122 PTS).

Since the Buddha did not want to put pressure on his disciples with unwanted rules, he took necessary steps to impose law and punishment when the right time came. Hence, it is obvious that there is an important psychological background behind the punitive process in Buddhist psychology. Once, Rev *Sarputtha* asked the Buddha to impose rules for the correct functioning of the *Sangha*, and the Buddha replied to him that he would not impose law until defilements emerged (*Asawattaniya Dhamma*) (MN:42 PTS). With respect to this case, I believe that the Buddha had thought the need of mental relaxation when attaining the ultimate goal and had shown the adverse affect of punishment which uproots human constructive ideas under such oppressive environment. However, with the passing of time due to the immoral practices of some monks, rules and punishments were introduced by the Buddha as *Vinaya* was the main factor that affected them in the long run of *Sasana* (*vinayo nama sasanassa ayu*) (SPa: 457). The Buddha's flexible policy regarding punishment astonished contemporary rulers as well as religious people. For example, once, King *Kosala* had the thought of "How the Buddha maintains strong

discipline in his disciples without rod and weapons” (MN II: 118 PTS). It is important to point out that the Buddha treated punishment in the *Sangha* and punishment in the state context in slightly different ways. The beginning of judicial system and the concept of punishment in primitive societies can be seen in *Agganna Sutta* in *Deegha Nikaya* (DN III: 80 PTS).

The Concept Of Punishment In Western Psychology

In general use, punishment is defined as something meted out to a person who has committed a crime or engaged in some other anti-social and inappropriate behavior. Punishment in modern law aims to hurt the offender as well as to include retribution. In the modern law the offender is punished if s/he has done the wrong thing deliberately as a result of his own free will: in such case he is considered as guilty and is liable to punishment. Moreover, punishment is used as a means of social control to maintain the social equilibrium to a certain extent. Modern penology recognizes the need for changing the anti-social attitudes in to social ones. Punishment may involve prison time, a death sentence, fines, and the threat of going to hell, spanking or scolding according to its general sense as explained in present law (Miltenberger, 2008:122).

A similar interpretation can be seen even in modern psychology regarding punishment. According to psychologists, anything that decreases behavior is considered as punishment². and aims at preventing the occurrence of the socially acceptable act in the future. As Anita argues, punishment involves the decreasing or suppression of one's behavior (Anita, 2006:239). According to Robber, punishment means “procedures in which aversive consequences are delivered to individuals when they engage in specific action” (Baron, 2008:447). In conventional learning situations, punishment is applied largely in classroom issues and in the process of management and psycho-motor skill development rather than in cognitive development³. In western psychology, slapping, spanking, pinching, shaking or hitting with belt or paddles are the main forms of physical punishment used by parents and teachers when disciplining children (Straus, 1991:503-561). It is even suggested by some that punishment methods like spanking and slapping are reasonable, while others consider them as abuse (Wade & Tarvis, 2007:248). Yelling, scolding, fining and sulking are non corporal punishments used by both teachers and parents (Ibid). To psychologists, there are some psychologists who believe that even punishments of milder forms, like spraying water in the face or a firm "No" can have the same effect as more severe ones such as an electric shock (Ibid). Punishment used in Behavior Modification (BMod) theory is somewhat different from the general meaning of the concept “punishment”. In BMod theory, “punishment” refers to a process in which the consequences of behavior result to a future drop in the occurrence of that behavior (Miltenberger, 2008:122).

²www.livestrong.com/article/105661-behavior-modification Retrieved 26.10.2014

³www.learningandteaching.info/learning/behavior_mod.htm Retrieved 29th. 10.2014

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Buddhism which imposes only mental punishment upon the guilty party has implemented punitive methods: criticizing, depriving privileges, assigning demerits, ignoring, giving extra works, isolation of the offender, detention, probation, begging forgiveness even from laymen, stopping going out and banishment from one's society to another as solutions for occasions where disciplinary actions should be taken. Since Buddhism does not promote physical punishment, punitive methods in Buddhism are entirely psychological.

Sometimes in conventional learning situations the teacher assigns demerits, extra work, running laps and so on, which is called "presentational punishment" in behaviorism. Buddhism imposes these types of punishment especially in the case of novices for their wrong-doings. Sometimes, they are asked to fill the shrine yard with sand according to the offence they have committed. Assigning extra work is a common punishment even in prison, but it is more severe than the Buddhist concept of punishment and classroom punishments.

Criticizing, advising, and ordering are three common punitive methods that can be seen very often in general classroom situations (Santrock, 2006:175). When students display wrong behavior, the teacher criticizes the wrong doer personally as well as in front of the classroom, whereas, sometimes, the students are advised not to engage into such wrong doings again. There are some occasions where students obey the teachers only when the latter give them explicit orders, whereas they are reluctant or even avoid complying with the teachers' requests when they are criticized or advised and for such students, the teacher orders what she wants to do. However, the nature of the punishment, criticizing, advising, and ordering, depends on the teacher's personality. If the personality of the teacher consists of sound teacher competencies, the teacher would not impose hard and painful punishments on the students. These three methods can also be found among the Buddhist punitive methods, notably in the case of *Chatuma*. Once, two groups of Bhikkhus, who gathered in *Chathuma*, behaved in an indecent way by shouting and making loud noise. The Buddha, who observed it, summoned those Bhikkhus and asked them to leave the monastery, thus expelling them from the monastery. It is also mentioned in the relevant *Sutta* that the Buddha called them back to the monastery after allowing them to reach an understanding of the indecent behavior they had displayed (MN I:457 PTS). The lesson we learn from this incident is that the person who errs is not considered as a wrong-doer forever. This is the reason why the Buddha summoned these Bhikkhus back to the monastery. He/she can correct his/her error as well as she/he can appear in society like a moon which got rid of clouds after correcting his/her error (Dham: 172-173 PTS). The *Angulimala Sutta* provides a fine example to illustrate this concept. Though *Angulimala* earlier in his life was a murderer, having corrected his faults he later became an important character in the Buddhist world under the guidance of the Buddha. It is instructive to look at his example: he explains his life experience and the conciliation he got from the Buddha because of the Buddha's correct guidance (TGha: 97 PTS). Another important aspect of this incident is that King *Kosala* was to capture him dead or alive when he was a murderer, but the Buddha did not do any harm or did not use any weapon in order to rehabilitate

him. The character of Rev *Angulimala* testifies that offenders are motivated to do such crimes by their psycho-social and physical environment. This view is accepted even in modern psychology (Johnston & Penny, undated: 131). Sometimes, in modern classrooms, when a student displays wrong behavior some teachers who have not improve their teaching qualities and competencies tend to label him/her as a wrong doer until he/ she leaves the school. The Buddhist teaching that “The person who errs is not a wrong-doer forever” is a fine example for such teachers to follow.

In the classroom teaching learning process and in the present judicial system, depriving privileges is used as a method to punish the offender. In behaviorism this is referred to as “*removal punishment*”, which includes removing a stimulus. When a teacher or the parents take away privileges from a child or a teenager who has behaved inappropriately, this is called “*removal punishment*” (Anita, 2006:239) - in modern psychology, it is also known as “*response cost*” (Miltenberger, 2008:122). This is a serious mental punishment any offender can be given. However, some psychologists suggest using depriving privileges instead of hitting when a child displays wrong behavior (Carole, Carol, Deborah & Lorin, 2007). Depriving privileges can be seen as a punitive method in Buddhist psychology as well. The *Pattanikkujjana Sutta* in *Anguttara Nikaya* gives an example of this type of punishment. Offering alms and providing for other needs of the Bhikkhus are privileges of laymen from the beginning of the Buddha *Sasana*. However, if laymen do not pay due respect to *Bhikkhus*, *Dhamma* and *Sangha*, in such occasions, the offerings of those (laymen) devotees are rejected by the *Bhikkhus*, which is called *Pattanikkujjana Kamma*. The main thing that happens under this punishment is that the Bhikkhus’ bowl is turned upside down in front of those laymen who display misbehavior towards the Bhikkhus and the Buddha *Sasana*. The *Pattanikkujjana Sutta* offers explanations about the eight occasions this punishment can be given to a layman (AN IV: 61 PTS). Depriving privileges is also a punishment given to a Bhikkhu who was subjected to *Nissayakamma* (*Act of subordination*). Such a Bhikkhu is compelled to live under a tutelage of another senior monk. In this case, rights and privileges are suspended until he completes *Manatta* and *Parivasa* according to the error he has committed.

Isolation is another method used in educational psychology in order to correct one’s behavior (Santrock, 2006:176). In this case, the teacher asks fellow students to not socialize with the student who has displayed wrong behavior. According to the incident which took place in *Ghositarāmayā* at *Kosambanuwara* (Kosambiya Sutta: 320 PTS) isolation is not a new method introduced by modern psychologists. Rev. *Channa* was also imposed “*ignoring*” with *Brahmadanda*. The person who is subjected to this punishment suffers mentally, at a higher degree than when he gets pain from physical punishment. Imposing *Brahmadanda* to Rev *Channa* was the occasion where the concept of punishment emerged in Buddhism.

Detention is another method used in present times to punish an offender. In modern classrooms, teachers assign detention for wasting time, repeated rule violation, not completing assignments and disrupting the class. In this punishment, students sometimes remain in the classroom, or in

detention rooms (if the school has one), where the student can be confined for a certain period of time. According to modern law, this is similar to the punishment given to those who are under probationary period. However, the process followed by modern law regarding probation is totally different in comparison to that of educational psychology and of Buddhist psychology. In Buddhism, this method can be seen functioning at a deeper level than in educational psychology. Completion of *Manath* and *Parivasa* is somewhat similar to this detention not regarding the depth of the process, but only in name. Length of detention in Buddhism is longer than modern classroom detention. While in detention, the monk who undergoes this process should complete a number of disciplinary actions in order to regain his purity. At schools, the length of the detention period should be short, e.g. in the order of 10-15 minutes since students are young and detention should happen only under the supervision of teachers (Santrock, 2006:176). At present, this type of punishment is rare due to the rise of the concept of “*human rights*”. In Buddhism, the Bhikkhus who undergo *Sangadisesa Apatti*, which is considered as the second gravest offence, are liable to have this type of punishment.

Begging for forgiveness to restore trust and re-capture one’s good standing in society is another punitive method used in Buddhism. In a similar way, in modern classroom education the teacher or the principal asks the wrong doer to beg forgiveness from teachers, parents and fellow students. Most of the times, this is done in front of all the students in the school or in front of the classmates in particular, during the daily morning assembly. A Bhikkhu who committed an offence should beg for the pardon even of a layman. This punishment is called *Patisaraniya Kamma* (“Act of reconciliation”) according to the *Sanghadisesa* offence (Vin). Some psychologists introduce begging forgiveness as “reconciliation” rather than as a type of punishment pointing out that reconciliation differs from punishment. They argue that reconciliation is a process of restoring trust and bond between the guilty party and society. Intention of reconciliation is not to harm the offender. Furthermore, they reckon that for this reason reconciliation is sometimes referred to as “*restorative justice*” (Fink, 2012:371). However, according to Buddhism, begging for forgiveness is an important mental punishment as well as restoration.

Excommunicating from a society to another is the greatest punishment imposed upon an offender by the Buddha. This is because *Parajika* is considered as the gravest offence a monk can commit. One who becomes offender under *Parajika* loses his entire priesthood. Some scholars believe that excommunicating an offender from his monastery and from the *Sangha* is similar to “banishment” in modern law. This punishment is known as *Pabbajaniya Kamma* (Act of banishment) in *Chullawagga Pali*. “But unlike the banishment from the state which involves various hard treatments, such as providing little or no food etc., the miscreant in Buddhist monasticism though excommunication is given a complete opportunity to lead a virtuous life in the lay society” (Baron, Byrne & Branscombe, undated:448). Therefore, though the word “banishment” is similar in name, at conceptual level, there are big differences between these two concepts. When we compare this punitive method with modern educational process, the principal

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or teacher cannot remove a student from a government school except in an exceptional case since it is accepted that every child has the right to receive his/her education until he/ she reaches a prescribed grade by the government. When such cases arise, parents as well as students tend to file a case against the teachers and the principal who imposed such a punishment at a human rights court.

In modern law, punishment of quarrelsome people depends on the damage the parties involved have experienced. Quarrelsome people can be found in any society. Teachers use physical punishment, depriving privileges and use blaming when these types of misbehavior occur in classrooms. Accepting the wrong-doing and making an arrangement to get rid of the error committed by the offender is highly appreciated in Buddhism. To this type of offence punishment in Buddhism is *Tajjaneeya Kamma* (*Act of censure*) according to which a Bhikkhu should obtain his purity by completing eighteen points under a special disciplinary action called “*Abbhana*”. Rev. *Pandukka* and Rev. *Lohitaka* are two Bhikkhus who received this punishment. If someone does not accept the error and tries to get rid of it, he is punished under “*Ukkephganiya Kamma*” (*Act of suspension*) (Vin).

Commonalities And Differences Of Punishment In Buddhist And Western Education Psychology

Since the Buddha’s main objective was to moralize his disciples but not to hurt them punishment in Buddhism is humanistic. That is what modern psychologists mean when they argue that punishment should be strong enough to stop the undesirable behavior but not excessive. If this is not the case, there may be resentment against who administers the punishment (Lester & Cherly, 2002:226). Moralizing is an approach that is discussed in western psychology too regarding punishment. In modern terms, punishment involves not only the behavior that should cease, but also elements of retribution or retaliation as well as to hurt the person who has committed the crime.

Since corporal punishments are not promoted in Buddhism, the offender does not experience physical sufferings in inhumane manner. The Buddha may have thought the net result of any kind of punishment was that it internalized oppression, humiliation, and degradation for both the giver and the receiver of the punishment⁴. Today, western countries have banned physical punishments of students by principals and teachers (Leach, 1994:259). Another researcher points out that Scandinavian countries and Austria have banned physical punishment in school education (David, 1998:259) too, but, in Canada, if the punishment is reasonable, there is no action taken against parents, teachers and principals for administering such punishment (Carole, Carol, Deborah & Lorin 2007:248). The main problem arises regarding that the subjective nature of what is understood as “reasonable” and how to measure it.

⁴www.stop hitting.com/index.php.page=buddhistonpunish. Retrieved 13.12.2014

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However, some modern psychologists believe punishment lowers the probability that a response will occur again (Coon & Mitterer, 2009:237), whereas others have argued it is hard to erase from memory a type of behavior that has been punished: its memory can only be suppressed temporarily which may result into a later reoccurrence of the behavior in a reinforced form, usually in a safe setting. But some psychologists argue that punished behavior is not forgotten; it is suppressed. The temporary suppressed behavior may (negatively) reinforce the punishing behavior. It means the punishing behavior may reappear in safe setting (David, 1998:259). This is the reason the Buddha, in most cases, used positive rather than negative reinforcement such as punishment. When King *Kosala* wanted to use physical punishment against Angulimala to make him submit, the Buddha achieved the same outcome with the help of constructive learning strategy. Most western psychologists too show a tendency to use positive reinforcement: praise, approval and reward instead of physical punishment since aversive punishments encourage escaping learning (learning to make response in order to end an aversive stimulus), avoidance of learning (learning to respond in order to postpone or prevent discomfort and aggression) (David, 1998:259). Another important aspect of this issue is that children understand positive instructions more easily than negative ones (Ibid). The teacher who gives students constructive feedback, offering positive instructions instead of focusing on the negative aspects of the student's work can thus reduce the likelihood that the unwanted behavior will reoccur by directing the student towards an alternative. Similarly, in recent research it can be seen that if parents change to less punitive parenting, their children's level of aggression will decline (Thomas , Undated). If children are punished by parents and teachers in an aggressive way, they would think aggression is a way to cope with problems (David, 1998:259). Not only will these children become more likely to experience from adult depression, suicidal tendencies, alcohol and spousal abuse and physical brutality against children (Straus & Kantor, 1994:543). As children observe the behavior of their parents and how the latter administer punishments, they may imitate their methods when dealing with friends, siblings and later in life with their own children. The parental model may exert a long-term and deep influence on their behavior (Ibid).

Some argue punishment should be matched in magnitude to the harm that has been caused⁵. Psychologists further say that the punisher should aim at the misbehavior not at the child (Lester & Cherly 2002:226). This can be seen in the punitive system in Buddhist psychology too. Constantly, where a punitive action should be taken, the Buddha considered the nature of the error committed but not the person responsible for it. Therefore, the punitive methods in Buddhist psychology are more reasonable. However, at present, due to objective factors, there are some occasions where punishment is imposed by considering the person and his past records but not the error committed.

The Buddha imposed rules and punishment where necessary straight after the error. This theory is accepted even in BMod theory and it is called “immediacy”. If the punisher gets more time to

⁵<http://newlotus;buddhist/door.com/en/news/d/33371>. Retrieved 1.11.2014

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punish the offender, this might separate the misbehavior and punishment by hours (Lester & Cherly 2002:226). It is believed that for punishment to be most effective, the consequences must follow the behavior immediately (Miltnerberger, 2008 :131), which, in modern psychology, this referred to as “contingency”. For punishment to be most effective, the punishing stimulus should occur every time the behavior occurs (Ibid). If the punishment is applied at random times, the child is likely to perceive the parents as unpredictable - s/he is on a variable ration schedule of reinforcement.

Punishment can create fear. The person receiving the punishment may show improved behavior because of the fear not only of the punishable behavior but also of the person who administers it or of the situation in which it occurs (David, 1998:259). The final result of such type of punishment is the child may come to fear the punitive teacher and may end up desiring to avoid school. This theory is discussed descriptively in Pavlov’s theory of “classical conditioning”. Here, such children are helpless and depressed. To another psychologist, physical punishment entails increased risk of causing low- self esteem (Ibid). This was said by the Buddha, i.e. that all tremble at the prospect of becoming the target of violence; all fear of death; placing oneself in the position of others, do not cause harm to them; do not kill (Dham:129 PTS). This is called “*Attupanayika Dhamma pariyaya*” in Buddhist psychology.

According to Buddhism, punishment is given to the wrong-doer if he/she has done it intentionally. Even in the present judicial system, before a punishment is given, consideration is given to whether the error has been done by an average person intentionally or not. The analysis of the offender’s mind in Buddhism is far more advanced than in the present judicial system.

Punishment was given to the right person for a specific behavior: this is called “target behavior” in modern psychology. Any punishment given out of that concept was rejected and corrected by the Buddha (TGha: 59 PTS). To *Chulla Pantaka theraghata*, first, the Buddha rejected physical punishment which is given without considering the cognitive level of the student; second, he corrected the wrong punishment imposed by his senior disciples; third, it was the Buddha’s acceptance that no teacher can awake one’s potentiality having punished him/her without understanding his/her mental differences and development; fourth, it is impossible to uplift one’s potentiality by imposing physical punishment, as punishment should be given to the right person, for the right behavior and at the right time. It is an important lesson to modern teachers who punish students without proper understanding of the student’s psycho-social background.

To modern psychologists, mostly, punishment tells the recipient what not to do but it does not communicate what the person should do. In Buddhism, when punishment is given, immediately after the punishment an *Anusasana* is delivered in order to explain what kind of action would be appropriate. This is another fine lesson that can be learned by present teachers from Buddhism so they can reduce the harmful damage caused by the punishment they administer.

CONCLUSION

Though western educational psychology imposes corporal and mental punishments as a negative reinforcement in classroom education, Buddhist psychology does not promote either physical or mental punishment in cognitive development process, since it does not provide any motivation to the learner to improve his/her academic level. In Buddhist psychology, mental punishments are also given in managerial problems where disciplinary actions should be taken, but not in academic environments. Given this, it is clear that Buddhist psychology rejects physical punishment in any setting: academic or managerial. At present, in modern educational process too there is a tendency to reject physical punishments due to its ineffective nature. They believe severe punishments are a poor way to eliminate unwanted behavior in most situations. In any case, both Buddhist and western psychologists believe that punishment conveys less information than reward. Presently, western psychology which has integrated some Buddhist psychology teachings, promotes positive reward-based education without relying on negative reinforcement. The Buddha is the first psychologists who emphasized that the recipient of punishment often responds with anxiety, fear and rage. Moreover, when we consider the purpose of the punishment in Buddhism, it is clear that it is at a deeper level than Western Psychology, since Buddhism expects to take the offender towards a higher spiritual attainment with offender's purity. Furthermore, some punishment-related strategies, policies and humanistic feelings followed by the Buddha provide many valuable insights to anyone who takes punitive actions to minimize its adverse effects. Finally, teachings on punishment in Buddhist psychology provide a sound guidance for policy makers, theorists as well as scholars to improve their findings about punishment towards a more humanistic approach in both theoretical and at practical level.

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Abbreviations

PTS- Pali Text Society
AN-Anguttara Nikaya
DN- Deegha Nikaya
MN-Majjima Nikaya
TGha-Thera Gatha
Dham –Dhammapada pali
Vin-Vinaya Pitaka
SPa- Samantha Pasadika

Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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A Study on Anxiety Level and Academic Achievement of XI Standard Students of Thanjavur District

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ABSTRACT

The Normative survey research has been conducted on Anxiety Level to the random sample of 731 XI standard students of Thanjavur District, Tamilnadu State. In this study, the investigator has used independent variable is Anxiety and the dependent variable is Academic Achievement. Gender, Locality, and Medium of Instruction are the demographic variables. Descriptive, inferential and correlation analyses were used to testing the hypotheses. The study reveals that the anxiety level of XI standard students is moderate and the Academic Achievement is in first class; Both Anxiety and Academic Achievement are significant with Gender, Locality of School and Medium of Instruction. The correlation between Anxiety and Academic Achievement is high negative correlation.

Keywords: *Anxiety, Thanjavur, Descriptive, Demographic Variable*

Education is an indispensable ingredient of development and a fundamental right of every individual. Education is a social process, which ensures the development of an individual from a similar and lower position to a more complex and higher one. Today, the academic achievement is considered as a primary thing of knowledge. But it will not be a blossom of knowledge. Parents of the students are wish that our students shot get more marks in all subjects and it will show our student knowledge. Knowledge is a broad term than academic achievement. Academic achievement is simply called as performance of the individual regards to their subject beyond. The academic achievement is affected by many factors. In those factors, the anxiety is one of them. Before entering the room the students exam anxiety is varied depends upon the individual. Sometimes the high anxiety of an individual may suffer in loss of concepts and it turns less achievement. In this context, the investigator of this paper has conducted a research on Anxiety and Academic achievement. Its function of preparing people for development has therefore

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become more difficult to discharge because of the extremely rapid changes taking place and the constantly increasing complexity and diversity of their forms.

Meaning of Study Variables:

The following paragraphs give meaning and definition of the study variables such as Anxiety and Academic Achievement.

Anxiety: Anxiety is disorders of an individuals' personality. it produces mental health problems of childhood and adolescence. As many as 1 in 10 young people may suffer from an anxiety disorder. About 50 percent of children and adolescents with anxiety disorders also have a second anxiety disorder or other mental or behavioral disorder such as depression. It is not known whether the anxiety disorders are caused by biology, environment, or both. Studies do, however, suggest that young people are more likely to have an anxiety disorder if their parents have anxiety disorders. Anxiety is the apprehensions carried off by a threat to some value which the individual holds essential to his existence as a personality. The logical meaning of Anxiety is that the free ambiguous moves of the mind. It is not easy to identify and it is not easy to become free from it. A person is not aware of its birth and its effect.

Academic Achievement: It is an indicator of performance of a student. It is not a blossom of students' knowledge. Knowledge is a broad thing which not limited. Academic Achievement is called as the performance of the individual in which what they learned. Academic Achievement may affect many factors. It is simply called as the learning outcomes of the students. It fulfills the subject and educational objectives.

NEED FOR THE STUDY

Nowadays, many of the parents are wanting from their children who must succeed with high academic achievement. Because they feel it is recognized trait of students learning outcomes. Academic achievement is simply called as performance of the individual regards to their subject beyond. The academic achievement is affected by many factors. In those factors, the anxiety is one of them. Before entering the room the students exam anxiety is varied depends upon the individual. Sometimes the high anxiety of an individual may suffer in loss of memorized concepts and it turns less achievement.

Students with anxiety disorders are easily frustrated; they may have difficulty in completing their work or task or examinations. They may worry so much about taking much longer time to finish a work or a task or examination even they have to do right thing than other students. This type of fears of being embarrassed, humiliated, or failing may result in school avoidance. Getting behind in their work due to numerous absences often creates a cycle of fear of failure, increased anxiety and avoidance, which leads to more absences attaining high achievement. Furthermore, children are not likely to identify anxious feelings, which may make it difficult for educators to fully understand the reason behind poor academic achievement. With this background, the investigator

A Study on Anxiety Level and Academic Achievement of XI Standard Students of Thanjavur District

has selected the topic entitled “A Study on Anxiety Level and Academic Achievement of XI Standard Students of Thanjavur District”.

Hypotheses of the study

Hypothesis is a scientific guess which must be tested with relevant statistics for finding results of the study. Good and Han states hypothesis that what we are looking for. A hypothesis looks forward. It is a proportion which can be put to a test to determine its validity. It may prove to be correct or incorrect” (as cited in Koul, 2008). It occupies an essential place and it cannot exclude from research especially in quantitative analysis. The following hypotheses have been formulated to the research.

- ✓ The Anxiety level of XI standard students is in moderator level.
- ✓ The Academic Achievement of XI standard students are in first class.
- ✓ There is no significant difference in Anxiety level of XI standard students with regard to the demographic variables such as,
 - Gender,
 - Locality of School, and
 - Medium of Instruction.
- ✓ There is no significant difference in Academic Achievement of XI standard students with regard to the demographic variables such as,
 - Gender,
 - Locality of School, and
 - Medium of Instruction.
- ✓ There is no relationship between Anxiety level and Academic Achievement of XI standard student

Variables of the Study:

One it have different characteristics or traits or a numeric value during a process is called as variable. In the year 2014, Kothari defines variable that a concept which can take on different quantitative values is called a variable. The following variables have been used for the study.

Independent variable:

It is a variable introduced by the investigator which will not change by other and it is acting alone in the research. “The independent variables are the conditions or characteristics that the experimenter manipulates or controls in his or her attempt to ascertain their relationship to observed phenomena” (Best & Kahn, 2006). The following is the independent variable of the study.

- ✓ Anxiety Level

Dependent variable:

The change in traits or characteristics of one variable by other variable is called as dependent variable. According to Best (1998), “The dependent variables are the conditions or

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characteristics that appear, disappear or change as the experimenter introduces, removes or changes independent variables”. The dependent variable of the study is

- ✓ Academic Achievement

Demographic Variable:

It is a special type of independent variable. The variable that makes influences on dependent variable with some extent is called as demographic variables. The followings are the demographic variables.

- ✓ Gender,
- ✓ Locality of School, and
- ✓ Medium of Instruction.

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY:

Methodology is an essential part of the research so because it call as hart of the research. It includes method of data collection, Sample and sampling techniques, description of tools, data collection, statistics and interpretation. According to New Webster dictionary of English language, the methodology is described as “The system of methods or of classification as it is applied by a science or art, while a method is ‘Systematic or clearly defined way of accomplish on end’ (as cited in Babu, 2008). The description of Methodology is below,

Method:

The Research method is fully based on the research problem and it objectives. Based on those factors, the investigator has selected Normative Survey Method for collecting data.

Sample and Sampling Technique:

Sample is a small portion of the population or the sampling frame. According to Pandya (2010), “Samples comprises of a small proportion of individuals, items or events selected for the study from a large group referred to as a population”. The sample must possess a minimum of one characteristic of the target population. For generalization to population, the represntative sample of 100 BT teachers (47 Male and 53 Female) of Thanjavur District, Tamilnadu were randomly selected.

Tool of the study:

Without tool, no researcher measures anything psychologically. The tool occupies a vital part in educational researches. It may be an instrument or device is used to collect data. For example, questionnaire, schedule, rating scale and tests etc. The following tool has used for data collection.

Anxiety Scale:

The Emotional Intelligence scale was constructed and standardized by Anukool Hyde, Sanjyot Pethe, and Upinder Dhar. The face and content validity were found by the tool constructors. The reliability of the scale is 0.88 by using split-half method. The internal validity of the tool is 0.94. The Anxiety Scale has been constructed and standardized by the investigator with 60 statements (5 point rating scale) and they are subjected to item analysis with t-test. 52 items were retained with the critical value of 1.75 and its greater (Edward, 1957). The face and content validity were

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found by the subject experts' opinion including two associate professor and one school teacher from Tamilnadu. The reliability of the scale is found to be 0.79 by using split-half method and the intrinsic validity of the tool is 0.89.

Academic Achievement:

Students' Annual mark is considered as Academic Achievement.

MAJOR FINDINGS

Findings are the exact results of the research which are explored from the analysis of hypothesis. It is considered as highlights of research where the researcher or the investigator is focused before as hypothesis to investigation. The followings are the findings,

- ✓ The Anxiety level of XI standard students is in moderator level.
- ✓ The Academic Achievement of XI standard students are in first class.
- ✓ There is a significant difference in Anxiety level of XI standard students with regard to the demographic variables such as,
 - Gender,
 - Locality of School, and
 - Medium of Instruction.
- ✓ There is no significant difference in Academic Achievement of XI standard students with regard to the demographic variables such as,
 - Gender,
 - Locality of School, and
 - Medium of Instruction.
- ✓ There is a moderator negative correlation between Anxiety level and Academic Achievement of XI standard student.

CONCLUSION

Conclusion is the scientific rationale which acts behind the result of findings. The following conclusion was made by the investigator based on the findings of the study.

- ✓ The Anxiety level of XI standard students is in moderator level.
- It may be due to exam fear of the students. Because they are shifted from secondary education to higher secondary education. In this case, the entire syllabus of science and mathematics is different and having a great gap due to the psychological factors of students. Nonetheless the science is classified with physics, chemistry and biology. In this stage some students compromise themselves and some others having high anxiety and most of students' having normal fear in examination. This meanly make the students moderate test anxiety towards students.
- ✓ The Academic Achievement of XI standard students are in first class.
- Most of the students' admitted in the schools are in merit basis. so this may influence in academic achievement..

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- ✓ There exists a significant difference in Anxiety level of XI standard students with regard to their Gender.
- Normally, the girl students before writing examination having high stress and always making high preparation to examination. The boys' students having the thought like 'It is not a matter' that may lead the variation between their test anxiety levels.
- ✓ There exists a significant difference in Anxiety level students with regard to Locality of School.
- The democratic environment between rural and urban schools may be different and this may lead the variation in anxiety level of students with regard to Locality of School.
- ✓ There exists a significant difference in Anxiety level students with regard to Medium of Instruction.
- Most of the XI standard students studying in English medium were completed their secondary education in Tamil medium before they joined XI Standard. This is the struggle to the students to write examination in English. This may lead the variation in anxiety level between Tamil and English medium students.
- ✓ There is a significant difference in Academic Achievement of XI standard students with regard to Gender.
- Girls' students are normally having high intelligence than male students. This may leads to higher academic achievement of girls' students.
- ✓ There is a significant difference in Academic Achievement of XI standard students with regard to Locality of School.
- Most of the parents of urban students are educated and make tutorial arrangement to foster their students learning. But the rural students have less opportunity to get additional learning like tuition and they have responsibility to share their parents work. This may leads the significance difference in academic achievement that the urban students are having high academic achievement.
- ✓ There is a significant difference in Academic Achievement of XI standard students with regard to Medium of Instruction.
- Most of the XI standard students studying in English medium were completing their secondary education in Tamil medium before they joined XI Standard. This is a struggle to the students to write examination in English. This may lead the variation in anxiety level and it leads less academic achievement of English medium students than Tamil Medium Students.
- ✓ There is a moderate negative correlation between Anxiety level and Academic Achievement of XI standard student.
- This reveals that the moderate level of anxiety direly influences the academic achievement of the students oppositely. It is a clear that there negative moderator relationship.

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Table-1 Descriptive Analysis of Test Anxiety Level

Variable	N	Mean	Median	Mode	S.D	Skewness	Kurtosis	Range	Status
Anxiety	731	213.41	212.21	209.01	9.88	.965	.899	36	Moderate
Academic Achievement		961.10	972.53	986.41	16.46	-0.365	.872	114	First Class

Table-2 N, Mean, SD and t-value of Gender, Locality and Medium of Instruction

Variable	Demographic Variable		N	Mean	Standard Error	't' Value	Significance
Anxiety	Gender	Male	397	199.32	9.63	2.12 [#]	Significant
		Female	334	219.70			
	Locality	Rural	349	225.31	5.95	2.04 [#]	Significant
		Urban	382	213.17			
	Medium of Instruction	Tamil	415	193.67	10.03	1.99 [#]	Significant
		English	316	213.62			
Academic Achievement	Gender	Male	363	947.31	23.74	2.69 [#]	Significant
		Female	368	1011.26			
	Locality	Rural	413	921.56	20.33	3.67 [#]	Significant
		Urban	318	996.25			
	Medium of Instruction	Tamil	457	943.44	22.17	1.99 [#]	Significant
		English	274	899.17			

[#] Significance with Critical Value 1.96 to the degrees of freedom 729 at 0.05 levels

Table-3 Correlation between Anxiety and Academic Achievement

Variable	Anxiety
Academic Achievement	0.59[#]

[#] Significance at 0.01 levels

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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A Study on Locus of Control and Mental Health of Students

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ABSTRACT

The aim of the present study is to assess the influence of locus of control on mental health of students selected from Kalaburagi (Gulbarga) district, Karnataka state. The sample consists of 180 students. The sample was administered with locus of control scale (Anand kumar and srivastav 1985) and mental health inventory (Jagadish and Srivastva 1988). And the data were subjected to the statistical analysis. The results revealed that locus of control produces significant differences in mental health of students and there is a significant difference in mental health between the male and female sample.

Keywords: *Locus Of Control, Mental Health And Students.*

Locus of control refers to a set of beliefs about the relationship between behaviour and the subsequent occurrence of rewards and punishments. The more precise phrase for these beliefs about locus of control is internal versus external control of reinforcement. whenever reinforcement (either positive or negative) are perceived by the individual as being the result of his or her own behaviour, efforts or relatively permanent characteristics etc., are example of an internal belief. External beliefs, in contrast, involve perceptions that reinforcements occur as the result of luck, chance, fate, or the interventions of powerful others, or else are simply unpredictable because of the complexity of events. Beliefs about locus of control or I-E are not either/ or but may fall anywhere along a dimension marked by external belief at the one extreme and internal ones at the other. Locus of control is an important aspect of the behavior. For the practicing school psychologists or teachers, this concept is apt bring to mind a variety of ideas.

A foundation for the conceptualization of Locus of control and extensive and elaborate theoretical views of its development are found in the works of many researchers.

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The concept of Locus of Control is formulated within the framework of the social learning theory (Rotter, 1954). It is related to the measurement of the extent to which an individual is self-motivated, directed or controlled (internal frame of reference)

Rotter identified the construct of internal external control of reinforcement as being the degree to which an individual believes his reinforcement are dependent upon his own behaviour (internality) or are controlled by forces beyond his control, such as luck or chance (externality) researchers have subsequently attempt to relate locus of control to various personality variables. Externality has been correlated with low ego strength and poor personal adjustment.

Wolfe (1970) Concluded, “ The superiority of internals over externals in predictive accuracy indicates that the internals either acquired more information bearing on their own academic outcomes or used available feed back more effectively or both”. This reveals that internals have always an edge over externals on certain selected variables.

Mental health is an important aspect of one's total health status and it is a basic factor that contributes to the maintenance of physical health and social effectiveness. It means the ability to balance feelings, desire, ambitions and ideals is one's daily life. It is the ability to face and accept the realities of life.

Mental health has two important aspects-- individual and social-. Social forces are in constant flux. They are constantly moving and changing and therefore our mental health is affected by various stresses. Mental health is a process of adjustment, which involves compromise and adaptation, growth and continuity. Because of the significance of individual and social aspects, mental health is defined as ability of the individual to make personal and social adjustments.

Mental health is the capacity of an individual to form harmonious adjustments to one's social and physical environments. Menninger (1945) defined mental health as the adjustment of human beings to the world and to each other with a maximum of effectiveness and happiness. It is the ability to maintain an even temper, an alert intelligence, socially considerate behavior and a happy disposition. Mental health can be described as absence of symptoms of maladjustment, be they mild or severe. Mentally healthy person is free from all types of maladjustment (Klein, 1956). Jahoda (1958) has said that aspects of attitudes toward self, growth and development, self-actualization, integration of personality and mastery of the environment must be considered in judging whether a person is mentally healthy or not.

Bhatia (1982) considers mental health as the ability to balance feelings, desires, ambitions and ideals in one's daily living. As part of one's overall health, mental and emotional health is a necessary condition to enable one to manage one's life successfully. Mental health is the emotional and spiritual resilience that allows one to enjoy life and to survive pain, suffering and disappointment.

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The National Association for Mental Health describes some of the characteristics of people with good mental health: comfortable feelings about one's self, feeling of 'right' about other people and being able to meet the demands of life.

Mental health of the learner is very important for efficient learning and proper development of personality. A child is born in a home where he remains in the constant company of his mother in the formative years of his infancy. Traditionally, it is said the mother is equal to hundred teachers. The impressions and experiences which a child has in these formative years leave permanent and indelible.

According to the World Health Organization, —Mental health is a state of well-being in which the individual realizes his or her own abilities, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully and is able to make a contribution to his or her own community.

Statement Of The Problem:

To study the mental health of students belonging to two groups of locus of control

Objectives:

1. To study the mental health of students belonging to two groups of locus of control
2. To examine the gender differences in mental health of the sample groups

Hypotheses:

1. There is significant difference in mental health between the students of two groups of locus of control
2. There is a significant gender difference in mental health of the sample sub groups.

Sample:

The sample of the study consists of 180 students selected randomly from various colleges of kalaburgi (karnataka). The respondents were administered locus of control scale to determine the level of locus of control. Subsequently sample was grouped into high and low locus of control on which mental health inventory was administered to determine the status. Thus the sample was matched for locus of control.

Tools:

1. Personal data schedule: this was prepared to collect the information like age, gender, religion, cast, course, class, faculty, parental data etc. of the sample.
2. Rotter's locus of control scale: Locus of control scale is standardized by Anand Kumar and Srivastava (1985) which consists of 29 pairs of items. 23 items are scored while other 6 filler items are not scored. The scoring is done according to scoring key and maximum score indicates high externality (external LOC) and lower scores reveal internality

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(Internal LOC). As authors claim the reliability of scale is 0.88 which is significantly high.

3. **Mental Health inventory:** This inventory is developed by Jagadish & Srivastva (1988) which consists of 54 items distributed along 6 dimensions. There are 4 response categories always, often, rarely and never. The scoring is done with the help of scoring key. The higher score indicate the higher mental health and vice versa. The reliability of the inventory has been found to be 0.75 which is significant.

Statistical Technique:

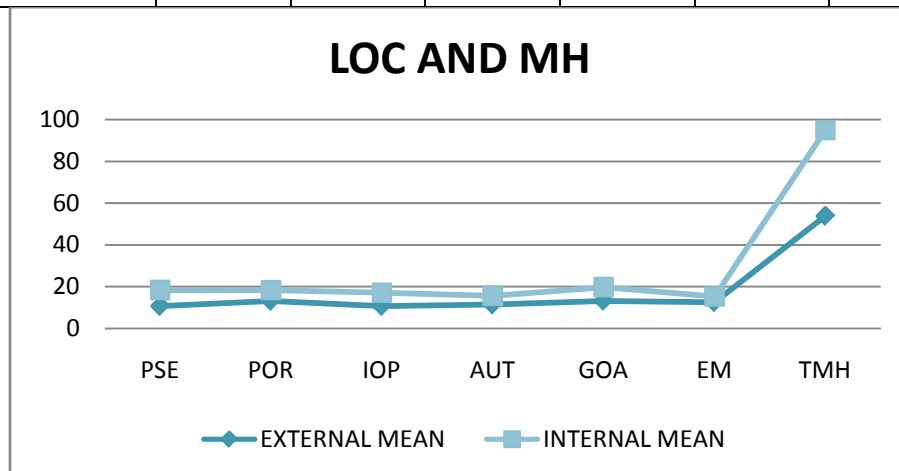
T-test was used to examine significant differences between two groups of sample with regard to mental health.

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The aim of the study was to assess the influence of locus of control on mental health of students selected from Gulbarga city (Karnataka). The students were administered with locus of control scale along with mental health inventory. The interpretation was made using t-test. The results of the study are presented in the tables.

Table:-1 Mean, SD and t-value of mental health of students in two levels of Locus of control (N=180)

LOCUS OF CONTORL		PSE	POR	IOP	AUT	GOA	EM	TMH
EXTERNAL LOC	MEAN	10.64	13.11	10.65	11.39	13.14	12.49	53.78
	SD	6.77	0.03	3.18	5.42	3.53	3.16	32.03
	N	98	98	98	98	98	98	98
INTERNAL LOC	MEAN	18.40	18.32	17.06	15.64	19.78	15.28	94.92
	SD	6.39	1.88	3.80	3.51	4.16	2.55	31.7
	N	82	82	82	82	82	82	82
t-value		3.98**	7.57**	6.15**	3.24**	5.82**	6.20**	4.33**



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Table: 1 gives means, SDs and t-value of mental health of students belonging to two categories of LOC external LOC and internal LOC. The students with internal LOC have higher mean score in TMH (94.92) than those students with external LOC (53.78). The t-value is 4.33 which are significant at 0.01 levels. This reveals that there is a significant difference in the mental health between those two groups of LOC. Similarly, the internal LOC group has significantly higher means than external LOC in all the dimensions of mental health. Thus positive evaluation of self, perception of reality, integration of personality, autonomy, group oriented attitudes, environmental mastery that are the constituents of mental health are mediated by one's LOC. Obviously a person with the ability to relate his behavior with its consequents scientifically, which is not a case with those with external LOC who usually believe in fate or luck.

Table:-2 Mean, SD and t-value of mental health of students in two levels of Locus of control (N=180)

MENTAL HEATH		PSE	POR	IOP	AUT	GOA	EM	TMH
MALE	MEAN	15.61	12.61	17.46	13.29	15.58	14.61	85.35
	SD	2.75	2.22	3.31	2.89	2.89	2.75	14.83
	N	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
FEMALE	MEAN	8.18	13.80	15.13	8.80	12.40	15.58	49.93
	SD	7.46	2.75	3.39	2.05	4.07	2.96	25.72
	N	90	90	90	90	90	90	90
t-value		6.29**	2.28**	3.28**	6.04**	6.15**	1.52**	12.18**

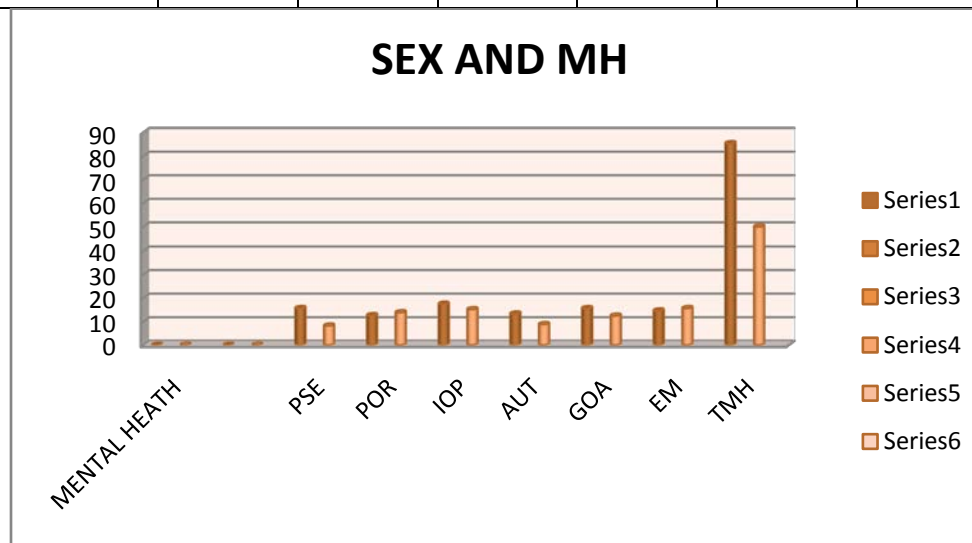


Table 2 clearly reveals that males have better total mental health (85.35). While females have lower mental health (49.93) the male students have significantly higher scores than females. The t-value is 12.18 which is significant and reveals that mental health produces significant differences between male and female sample. In all dimensions, there are significant gender differences as t-value are all significant.

CONCLUSIONS

The following are the conclusions:

1. There is a significant effect of LOC on mental health of students: internal LOC students have significantly higher mental health than external LOC students.
2. There are significant gender differences in mental health.

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The author appreciates all those who participated in the study and helped to facilitate the research process.

Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Social Media and Social skills

Prabhakararao Sampathirao^{1*}

ABSTRACT

Constant engagement of children with social media deprives them of face-face to face contacts and hence opportunities to practice social skills in real time situations. Technological Communication (internet and social media) preference strongly correlated with poor social skills and high social anxiety, while a greater restriction of technology in youth correlated with high social skills. One of the “benefits” advocated over and again by experts in various fields is that social media actually increases and supports the development of social skills. However, technological Communication (internet and social media) preference strongly correlated with poor social skills and high social anxiety, while a greater restriction of technology in youth correlated with high social skills in college. In this study the following five popular benefits from social media that were highlighted over and again, have been examined critically to show the reverse is true.

Keywords: *Social Media, Social Skill*

Human beings need to socialize as they are hardwired to fellow beings. However, connecting with others doesn't come naturally – children need to practice at development of these skills i.e., social skills, that would make them socially competent adults. Lack of good social skills can make life lonely, causing anxiety and depression. In the last two decades, advances in information technologies have substantially altered the way humans interact between email, texting, social networking, instant messaging, and Skype, people now have the resources that would make them possible to spend days or months without coming into face-to-face with another person, yet still remain connected with the world (1).

As technological communication becomes progressively diffused into our culture it results into erosion of our identities through social networking sites, it is also apparent that just as many negatives as positive outcomes are emerging. Employers are complaining about the lack of interpersonal communication skills their job applicants have, and communications skills have

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consequently been pushed to the top of the list of qualities required of employees (2). Neurological research studies have found that the brains of individuals who spend a lot of time on the Internet resemble those of drug addicts in significant ways (3). More the time members of our society spend using the computer, the less time they spend in person with family and friends (4). Other research suggests that 39% of Americans spend more time socializing online than face-to-face (5). The American Psychiatric Association has shown clear concern with cultural tendency to spend copious hours on the Internet.

Social networking is altering the social dynamic of communication by creating the impression of a constant audience looking in on one's life and self-conscious ways on these pages to put themselves in an optimal light. The audience of "friends" that users broadcast their lives to is a list of people to whom users have given page access. The labeling of people as "friends" gives individuals the ability to publicly articulate their connections with others, verifying the reality of an audience that is constantly up to date with their own life to the automatic listener (6). Yet, the audience to whom we project our lives onto is "imagined," in that, while users have granted hundreds of people access to their page, most social networking websites do not give users a list of people who visit the page and with what frequency, this part must be imagined by the user. The imagined audience also differs from one social networking website to another. With regard to Twitter, most accounts are public, meaning that anyone can gain access to what an individual has posted. While users are given the ability to "follow" others, there is no technical requirement or social expectation of reciprocity from these followers. Therefore, the audience of followers of a Twitter user imagination is much more arbitrary than that imagined by Facebook users, who must grant permission to others to view their page. The presentation of an ideal self to an imagined audience is an example of the psychological term "self-presentation," which is the attempt to control self-relevant images before real or imagined others (7). This behavior occurs in all walks of life, as individuals learn to segregate their audiences, presenting a self-compatible to the audiences they find in different face-to-face social situations. Yet in the case of social networks, we are faced with "collapsed contexts" of multiple distinct audiences in one space and we feel pressure to present a variable self-presentation to this mixed group of people (8). Research shows that individuals who are more shy and idiocentric lie more about their identities online to appeal to an imagined audience, than extroverted individuals do (9).

We go with our friends, family members out to dinner together or to enjoy an holiday, while we "check-in" at the restaurant or hotel, impulsively someone or all of us pull out our cell phones to update our Facebook status, Instagram a picture of food, reply to a text message we just received... sometimes it seems as if we are socializing with everyone but with the person sitting right next to us. Social media and text messages become so integral to teenage life and they are promoting anxiety and lower self-esteem. Very few of us pay attention to our teenagers' use of technology with the intensity and intimacy with which it affects their social life.

There's no doubt that social media, or more specifically social networking, has radically changed the way we communicate, the opportunities and advantages for those who use it properly have exploded. However, a less positive change comes with a breakdown of interpersonal skills in young people — those we genteelly refer to as "digital natives." But at least a handful of children right from their early teens, in our neighborhood with profiles on that particular social network, and talk on the street indicate that the pre-teen set is active in other venues as well. For these children, hanging with their friends is more often a virtual activity than actually getting together in person. We've always encouraged our children to be friendly and make friends. Now, thanks to social networking, the opportunity to make friendship with hundreds of people all around the world is so simple. No one has to leave their own room, let alone do the hard work of developing deep, honest relationships (10). Much research has been done on social anxiety as a cause of over-use or addiction to technological communication, yet there has been little research done on the reverse, technological communication as a cause of social anxiety and social inadequacy. In this study the following five popular benefits from social media that were highlighted over and again, have been examined critically to show the reverse is true.

In reviewing the first benefit that social media allows kids to “break the ice” and is a low risk approach to making friends, especially for shy children, this risklessness is very risky. Learning how to make friendships is an important part of growing up, but is essentially a risky thing. There is risk in having face-to-face conversations as it takes courage to confront a friend and be honest about one's own feelings, or to deal with conflict. However, today's youth are turning to social media and texting more and more to deal with these difficult situations. Modern teens are learning to do most of their communication while looking at screen, not another person, conversation takes practice...and a dependence on devices can make it harder for children who are already struggling socially. Social skills are, in fact, skills – and skills need practice. All children need to develop these skills, but especially children who are really struggling socially. Important social skills develop from face-to-face conversations (11).

A balance needs to be found between online chatting, tweeting, video chat, and actual face-to-face interactions. Some children are letting the internet take control of their social lives, and slowly the desire and ability to socialize face-to-face is decreasing. Parents can model out appropriate social skills to their children and practice with them by offering talking points and conversation starters, e.g., eye contact, handshakes, speaking slowly and clearly, how to introduce self, and general conversation manners and politeness. They can also show their children how to listen attentively and how to respond appropriately. Create opportunities for children to practice with others in their next family gathering, after school on the ride home with a friend, making small talk with the cashier at the store... again, practice helps shy children to break out of their shells a bit or give into more sociable children a chance to hone their skills.

Regarding the second benefit that Social media leads to more intimate relationships and even improve mental and emotional health due to constant connectedness of children with friends and family, children are never really alone when it comes to social media, but learning to be alone is beneficial for their development. When they are connected or/and expected to connect, it can be emotionally draining and may lead to anxiety or even a fear of missing out if they aren't constantly connected. When get ignored online, or disconnect from those they have been constantly connected to, may lead to frustration, hurt feelings, and even depression. More the time an individual spends on the Internet at home, the less time he or she spend with friends, family members, and participating in social activities. Greater use of Internet is associated with declines in communication with family members in the household, declines in the size of the social circle, and increases in depression and loneliness. But ironically, people who are depressed, lonely, or anxious are just more likely to use social media. This is where the issue gets complicated, how social media impacts mental, emotional and social health more likely depends on how social media is being used. If the child's social media time is taking away from meaningful face-to-face time with friends and family, it's more likely to have negative impacts on health.

Additionally, health is likely to be more negatively impacted if children are passively engaging in social media (such as "lurking" or scanning other people's profiles) instead of actively engaging with the content. What for sure do we know from research is that actively engaging with friends and family members boost our mental, emotional, and social health – another reason why it is so important for our children to have face-to-face time with friends and family. Parents should help their children in setting up expectations from cell phone, Internet, and social media use as well as consequences for violating those expectations and follow through as a family. Parents also establish technology-free times or zones, such as during dinner or in the bedroom and to ensure to follow these rules for themselves as well. As the parent – if they aren't following their own rules, children won't follow them either. This will teach them that there is a time and place for technology, but that there is a need to balance it with "real-world" interaction.

Giving them the opportunity to power down and just be alone for a while during the day can help ease anxiety. If the child upsets about getting disconnected from someone (such as not getting a response to a text message right away), having a conversation with the child about how he or she is feeling, and offer an alternative activity to keep their mind off the lack of connection. Do something together to show your child that they are not alone or unloved despite being "ignored" on social media.

Before Parliament's pass any internet regulations, children who use these sites can lose sight of where their personalities finish and the outside world begins. Children's sense of identity is being eroded by "fast-paced, instant screen reactions," so that members of their generation will define themselves more by the responses of others than by their own sense of self-worth.

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Because of social network sites, the mid-21st century mind will be characterized by "short attention spans, sensationalism, inability to empathize and a shaky sense of identity (12). Relational aggression comes from insecurity and feeling awful about self, and wanting to put other people down so as to feel better.

Peer acceptance is a big thing for adolescents, and many of them care about their image is not less than a politician running for office, children today are getting actual polling data on how much people "like" them or their appearance and it's enough to turn anyone's head. So kids can spend hours pruning their online identities, trying to project an idealized image. Teenage girls sort through hundreds of photos, agonizing over which ones to post online. Boys compete for attention by trying to out-gross one other, pushing the envelope as much as they can in the already disinhibited atmosphere online and they gang up on each other. With the advent of social media young adults are faced with more opportunities—and more traps—than ever before. When they scroll through their feeds and see how great everyone seems, it only adds to the pressure. It is more worrisome about how the adolescents' impractical ideals that photoshopped magazine model gives, but what happens with the guy next door is also photo shopped. Even it is more confusing when one's own profile doesn't even represent the real person within himself.

The early twenties are the years in which teens are acutely aware of the contrasts between how you appear and how you "want to appear" it is similar to the 'imposter syndrome' in psychology (Dr. Wick). As you get older and acquire more mastery, you begin to realize that you are actually good at certain things, and that very feeling hopefully narrows the gap. Having your deepest and the darkest fear is that you aren't good as you look, but your inner urge to look good is really exhaustive. Self-esteem comes from consolidating who you are. The more identities you have, and the more time you spend pretending to be someone you aren't, the harder it's going to be to feel good about yourself. Girls are socialized more to compare themselves to other people to develop their identities, so it makes them more vulnerable to the downside of all thi

The conversation of children on the social media never ends, and it feels like there's always something new happening. Whatever we think of the 'relationships' maintained and in some cases initiated on social media, children never get a break from them and that, in and of itself, can produce anxiety. Everyone needs a respite from the demands of intimacy and connection, time alone to regroup, replenish and just chill out. When you don't have that, it's easy to become emotionally depleted, and it will become a fertile ground for anxiety to breed. It's also surprisingly easy to feel lonely in the middle of all that hyper connection. Taking a moment to simply take a breath and collect the thoughts can keep the mind from getting carried away with anxiety. Simply pulling back and counting to 10 during stressful situations can help to **stay more calm**. Practicing deep breathing techniques can help to manage stressful situations in two ways. First, if they are practiced on a regular basis, they will contribute to an overall more relaxed mood. Second, **once comfortable** with breathing exercises, you can access them anytime, anywhere, making them a very portable stress-reduction method. (13)

For one thing, children now know with depressing certainty when they're being ignored. We all have phones and we all respond to things pretty quickly, so when you're waiting for a response that doesn't come, the silence can be deafening. The silent treatment might be a strategic insult or just the unfortunate side effect of an online adolescent relationship that starts out intensely but then fades away. Children are often left imagining the worst about them, but even then the conversation doesn't end. Being in a constant state of waiting can still provoke anxiety. We can feel ourselves being put on the back burner, we put others back there, and our very human need to communicate is effectively delegated there, too.

While examining the third benefit that social media gives children the time to think about a response, think through their words before hitting “send” and sending something they might regret, instead of having to reply right away, it's very important for children and adults alike to think before they post. However, face-to-face conversations don't work like this. When someone asks a question, they expect a response right away. Children won't always have the opportunity to leave the conversation and come back when they have the perfect response. During an interview, for example, the candidate is expected to think on his feet and respond appropriately. Not being prepared for these kinds of face-to-face interactions can lead to anxiety in children. Thinking before posting also doesn't help prepare children for dealing with conflict face-to-face. They might say something that doesn't come out quickly and quite right, and they need to learn how to manage that situation (14)

In addition, social media interactions eliminate non-verbal cues that we rely on so heavily during face-to-face interactions. As a species we are very highly attuned to reading social cues. There's no question missing out on very critical social skills. In a way, texting and online communicating—it's not like it creates a nonverbal learning disability, but it puts everybody in a nonverbal disabled context, where body language, facial expression, and even the smallest kinds of vocal reactions are rendered invisible. Major part of healthy self-esteem is how to say what you think and feel right, even when you're in disagreement with other people or it feels emotionally risky (15). When those are missing it can lead to miscommunication. Children don't have the opportunity to practice picking up on these cues when they are using social media to communicate. Parents can provide opportunities with face-to-face interaction and to appraise its necessity by asking those questions that make them to think more than just a “yes or no” answer. Parents also can help them to identify nonverbal cues while having conversations e.g., meaning of a particular tone of voice that says fine, but by looking into eyes one can easily recognize the person is really worried and bothering.

But when friendship is conducted online and through texts, children are conversing in a context stripped of many of the most personal—and sometimes intimidating—aspects of communication. You aren't hearing or seeing the effect that your words are having on the other person. Because the conversation isn't happening in real time, each party can take more time to consider a

response. If a child doesn't get enough practice relating to people and getting their needs met in person and in real time, many of them will grow up to be adults who are anxious about our very primary means of communication—talking. And of course social negotiations only get riskier as people get older and begin navigating romantic relationships and employment. Parents hope to teach the children to disagree without jeopardizing the relationship but, what social media is teaching them is to disagree in extreme ways and *do* jeopardize the relationship. It's exactly what the parents don't want to happen with their children.

Insofar as the fourth benefit that social media gives children more opportunities to communicate and practice social skills, social media provides the opportunity to develop some social skills, but not all. Those face-to-face skills lack when children spend the majority of their time communicating through devices. It's all about finding a balance between the two. Social media also limits their ability to navigate spontaneously through social interactions instead of chatting with someone on the side by; they just pull out their cell phone to avoid the conversation, putting ear/headphones 'on' usually means that he doesn't want to talk. Children don't always have the experience as how to initiate conversations, maintain a conversation, and make "small talk." They can also become dependent on their phone or iPod to entertain them, which can diminish their self-regulation skills.

Parents can help their children to model out what it looks like an engagement in spontaneous conversation, while at the grocery store, chat with the cashier and include your child in the conversation. While riding the bus, don't pull out your phone or book – instead, sit and watch the scenery go by. Simply showing the child what it looks to be powerful, when not have to rely on technology to get through the day. Encouraging face-to-face communication as much as possible, to help balance the time spent communicating online.

The final benefit that the social media builds confidence in teens by encouraging them to connect with others: It may actually have the exact opposite effect. We know that peer acceptance is very important to adolescents. Although teens may be connecting with others in new ways, this also brings new opportunities for teens to feel either accepted or unaccepted by peers. Adolescence and the early twenties in particular are the years in which you are acutely aware of the contrasts between who you appear to be and who you think you are. An Instagram picture that only gets a few "likes" may make a child feel unaccepted by peers; a rude comment on Facebook can lower a child's self-esteem dramatically. Children start defining themselves by the responses of others instead of their own self-worth. Their confidence and self-esteem can suffer, in such situations parents should openly express their love with the children and praise them for their accomplishments. With the girls especially, refrain from complimenting them on how they look; instead, focus on their talents and inner strengths. Be open and available for conversations with the child. Let them know that parents are there with them whenever they need

to talk. Discuss how their online interactions are making them feel and invite an open conversation.

CONCLUSION

If used in excess, communicating via cyberspace can inhibit communication skills, but if used in moderation, can help young people become more comfortable communicating with their peers if they are too shy to do so in person; the key is to make sure children know that real living takes place offline. (16)

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Aggressive Behaviors of Sri Lankan Preschool Children: A Mixed Method Study

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ABSTRACT

Very few studies have explored young children's aggressive behaviors in collective cultures or in South Asian contexts. The present study reconnoitres in depth; the nature, types, prevalence and antecedents of aggressive behaviors displayed by Sri Lankan preschool children. The study was carried out in two phases using a mixed method; 1. Preschool teacher interviews (N = 23) with teachers from 14 varied preschool contexts in Sri Lanka, and 2. Observations of aggressive behaviors of 16 preschool children displaying prominent overt, and relational aggression from four varied preschool communities selected from a group of 135 children. Findings of this study make important contributions to aggressive behaviors within Sri Lankan preschool children and discuss them in the back drop of global research findings. Findings also provide new information regarding the manner in which aggression was expressed by the observed group of preschool children, labeled as 'playful aggressive parodies' by the author.

Keywords: *Aggressive behaviors, preschool children, Interviews, Observations, Sri Lanka*

Childhood aggression has been described in terms of direct observable features (Dodge, Coie, & Lynam, 2006; Ostrov, Woods, Jansen, Casas, & Crick, 2004; McEvoy, Estrem, Rodriguez, & Olson, 2003; Crick and Dodge, 1996), antecedents, consequences (White, Moffitt, Earls, Robins, & Silva, 1990, age (Ostrov, Crick & Stauffacher, 2006; Kuppens, Grietens, Onghena, Michiels, & Subramanian, 2008) and aversion to the victim (Coyne, Archer, & Eslea, 2006). Therefore, childhood aggression could be viewed as a phenomena, which involves forces that are internal to the child (gender, temperament, biological development, self-regulatory processes and social cognitive information processing), forces that are external but within child's social interactions and relationships (Parenting styles, attachment relationships, and peer interactions), and forces that are external and embedded in wide macro structures such as media, community and political violence.

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Research on childhood aggression also records that aggressive behaviors are common phenomena in the preschool class (Goldstein, Arnold, Rosenberg, Stowe, & Oritz, 2001), aggressive children are not isolated but are members of networks of similarly aggressive peers (Pepler & Craig, 1995; Farver, 1996) and children engage in different types of aggressive behaviors such as direct physical (Dodge, Coie, & Lynam, 2006; Huesmann, Eron, Kefkowitz, & Walder, 1984; Phillips & Lochman, 2003; Dodge, 1980), verbal/relational (Siegler, Deloache & Eisenberg, 2003; Crick, Casas & Ku, 1999; Crick, Casas & Mosher, 1997) and indirect-verbal/relational aggression (Tapper & Boulton, 2004). Studies on aggression and preschool children also convey that children are more likely to aggress if another child/children had just performed an act of aggression than if no aggression had occurred (Goldstein, Arnold, Rosenberg, Stowe, & Oritz, 2001).

Apart from being listed as extremely challenging for teachers' (Snell, Berlin, Voorhees, Stanton-Chapman & Hadden, 2012), parents', and distressing to peers, aggressive behaviors can also be destructive and harmful to the child concerned (Gilliam, 2004). Moreover, research conveys that aggression is a moderately stable phenomenon throughout the years of childhood (Farrington, 1991), and highly aggressive behaviour often co-occurs with, and is predictive of, (1) poor academic performance and increased risks for dropping out of school (DeRosier, Kupersmidt, & Patterson, 1993); (2) being seen by teachers and peers as disruptive (Ollendick, Weist, Borden, & Greene, 1992; Wentzel & Asher, 1995); and may serve as (3) precursors of delinquent activities (Kupersmidt & Coie, 1990; Shores & Wehby, 1999).

On the other hand, research also conveys that positively perceived relationships between child-teacher interactions contribute to social competence and less aggression in children while higher levels of aggression were related to negatively perceived child-teacher relationships (Blankemeyer, Flannery, & Vazsonyi, 2002).

Hence, there are several advantages of considering preschool teacher perceptions of aggression as they influence the discipline related attributions in the preschool class, affect the aggressive children's self-perceptions as well as other children's perceptions of the aggressive children (Chang, 2000). Finally, preschool teacher knowledge and beliefs concerning behavior problems in a preschool classroom if effectively used can perform a vital role in early warning systems of aggression (Bibou-Nankou, Kiosseoglou, & Stogiannidou, 2000).

Though preschool children's aggressive behaviors have been explored extensively across the globe little is known about the possible antecedents, type and nature of childhood aggressive behaviours in Sri Lankan preschool children, or their teacher perceptions of it. Though several recent studies seem to have addressed concepts related to childhood aggression in Sri Lanka such as externalizing (Samarakkody, Fernando, McClure, Perera, & De Silva, 2012) and disruptive behaviors (Senaratna, 2012) of young children, there seems to be vacuum when it comes to the

aggressive behaviors in Sri Lankan preschool children. When considering the challenges that Sri Lankan preschools experience such as large number of children per class room, in adequate preschool teacher training pertaining to early violence prevention (Pathirana, 2006) and absence of a structured monitoring mechanism of early childhood care, there seem to be an urgency to explore the nature and types of aggressive behaviors displayed by Sri Lankan preschool children.

METHOD

The study was carried out in two phases. The phase I comprised of preschool teacher interviews (N = 23) to find out the nature and prevalence of aggressive behaviors of the preschool children as perceived by a sample which represents Sri Lankan preschool teachers, Phase II of the study comprised of observations of the aggressive behaviors of 16 preschool children from four different preschool communities in Colombo.

Phase I - During this phase data was collected using a semi structured, open interview schedule which allowed free expression of the respondents' views on the topic, with a duration of 90 to 30 minutes. The interviews took place in offices, classrooms and preschool teacher training centres. The author conducted the interviews preserving the confidentiality of the participants during all stages. Before initiating the interview permission was obtained to tape record the interviews, which were transcribed by the author.

After consulting experts on early childhood education and research methodology a diverse list of participants were compiled, comprising of preschool teachers (18 to 60 yrs) from different contexts such as preschool in the plantation sector, rural & urban preschools, Sinhala, English and Tamil medium preschools, model preschools funded by the government/ non- governmental organizations, private/ fee levying preschools, preschools of which disabled children were the predominant population, preschool in a street children community, a preschool in a fishing community, preschools in areas of which garment factory workers, security officers & migrant mothers to the middle-east are the predominant population.

Phase II—During phase II of the study an observation schedule was used. The participants for this phase was selected out of 135(66 boys and 69 girls) preschool children using, culturally adapted Sinhalese Version of Preschool Social Behavior Scale – Teacher Form's (PSBS – T-SV). The children were attending four varied preschool communities (government, private and, two run by nongovernmental organizations), and were 25 to 72 months of age (M = 49.5 months; SD = 8.011). In the preschools observed, the teacher often worked as the only individual in a moderately large class (Teacher child ration, 1: 30); and children participated in adult initiated, structured, and directed activities for relatively long periods. A period of three months was assigned for this task.

Based on the preschool teacher ratings of the PSBS – T- SV; 16 preschool children (Girls = 07; Boys = 09) selected out of the initial group of 135 preschool children, representing the four preschool communities, displaying the most prominent patterns of overt and relational aggression.

Instruments

Open ended interview questionnaire – Preschool Teachers - Preschool teacher perceptions on types, nature, prevalence and antecedents of child aggressive and prosocial behaviors were gathered using a semi-structured interview questionnaire. The questionnaire allowed the participants to reconstruct his or her experience pertaining to aggressive and prosocial behaviors of the preschool children. In this study, aggressive behaviors of the preschool children would be discussed.

To ensure integrity and trustworthiness, all the interview questions were piloted by a panel of resource persons, whose expertise lies in the areas of early childhood education, research methodology, and social psychology. Based on the suggestions of the experts, revisions were carried out. Before conducting the actual interview, a pilot study was conducted to test the interview design with 05 participants. Questions were re-worded or eliminated based on participant feedback. During the pilot phase if it was noticed that certain questions were irrelevant or offensive to the participants, those questions were also eliminated from the questionnaire after consulting the experts. The author interviewed all 23 participants (all females) preserving their confidentiality during all stages of the interviews.

Preschool Social Behavior Scale- Teacher Form, Sinhalese Version (PSBS –T, SV) To identify children with prominent aggressive and prosocial behavioral patterns, culturally adapted version of the Preschool Social Behavior Scale- Teacher Form (PSBS – T) developed by Crick and Mosher (Crick et al., 1997; Crick et al., 1999) was used. This scale was adapted from a previous teacher rating scale constructed by Crick, Casas and Mosher (1987). The initial PSBS-TS is a questionnaire comprising of 25 items with six index scores which can be computed for several areas of a preschool child's functioning, including scales: (1) relational aggression (n = 08), (2) overt/physical aggression (n =08) , (3) prosocial behaviour (n = 04), (4) depressed affect (n = 03), (5) Child's acceptance with same sex peers (n = 01) and (6) child's acceptance with opposite sex peers (n= 01). Teachers rated each child on a five point scale from 1 (never or almost never true) to 05 (always almost true). PSBS –T-SV was used to identify children with prominent prosocial and aggressive behavior patterns. This is a standardized instrument, validated on 129 children in preschools located in a moderately sized Midwestern town in Minnesota. Permission to use the scale was obtained from the authors (Crick's lab in Minnesota, USA).

For this study, culturally adapted version of the Preschool Social Behavior Scale – Teacher Form was used and thus be called Preschool Social Behavior Scale – Teacher Form - Sinhalese Version (PSBS – T- SV), using Delphi Technique (Pathirana, 2006). In this study, the Delphi process was carried out in two rounds. In the first round, the scale was given to 7 experts whose expertise was in the fields of early childhood education, clinical and child psychology. They were requested to rate each question from 0 to 9, with 0 indicating the lowest level of each characteristic and 9 indicating the highest on three aspects; a) cultural relevance, b) retaining the conceptual meaning and c) its content suitability to be used with the sample (preschool teachers).

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The experts were also requested to rate the suitability of the PSBS-T's sub scales: relational aggression, overt aggression, depressed affect, prosocial behavior, child's acceptance with same sex peers and child's acceptance with opposite sex peers, using a scale of 0 to 9. The ratings of the experts' scales were collected and averaged. In the second round, six experts who participated in the first round were requested to re-rate their previous rating based on the first round average. Next, the re-rating on the second round was also averaged. If a question was rated higher than 3 by all the experts it was retained. Since the scores for each question yielded a score of more than 3, all questions were selected to be included in the study in addition to 05 questions suggested by the experts. The final version of the PSBS – T-SV comprised of 30 questions. The preschool teachers were requested to rate frequency of the behaviors of the children on a 5-point scale (1 = never or almost never true, 5 = always or almost true) in response to these 30 statements such as, "This child is good at sharing and taking turns" or "This child kicks or hits others". Preschool teachers were provided with written and verbal instructions on scoring of the scale and the author was available to ask questions if they required clarifications.

Observations

All observations were conducted using a pre-designed observation schedule by the author. Average time observed per child was 40 minutes. Six to six observation sessions, on three different days per child were carried out across five different activities: while children observed their religion in the morning, structured activity in the class room, two unstructured activities in the class (while eating/ before school), two unstructured activities outside the classroom (free play/ after school). The children were observed on a rotation sequence to ensure that all three children in each preschool class were observed on a regular basis, during which relational, physical aggressive acts as well as prosocial acts were recorded. Prior to the observation, the author introduced herself to the teachers and spent minimum of two days in the classroom to habituate children to this process. At the end of observation sessions, discussions were held with the preschool teachers pertaining to the observed behaviors of the children.

Observational Schedule - The highest scorers of relational, physical and prosocial behaviour from each preschool for the PSBS – T, SV were observed by the author. She used direct observations method to observe each of these behaviours and their interrelates (child/ teacher responses to these behaviors). The frequency of these behaviors was scored based on definitions used by Crick and colleagues (1997).

- i. Relational aggression – Verbal or nonverbal behavior that harms others through damage to their peer relationships (such as excluding others from play or encouraging others to exclude a peer from play).
- ii. Physical/ overt aggression – Behaviors that harm others through physical damage or threats of such damage (eg. pushing, hitting, kicking, or threatening to beat up a peer)
- iii. Teacher practices – responses or reactions of the preschool teachers to observed aggressive or prosocial acts of the selected child.

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In order to avoid the disturbance effect of multiple observers, the author, who had established a good rapport with the children and teachers before starting the study, made all the observations. The protocol of the semi-structured observation contained tables to record aggressive and prosocial behavioral patterns observed in children during activity sessions, as well as preschool teacher responses pertaining to those behavioral patterns. They were tabulated in the following format:

- a. Antecedent – Included the location and the events that preceded the aggressive/prosocial behavior of the child
- b. Behavior – Included descriptions of children's aggression/prosocial behavior
- c. Consequences -Included any immediate results such as the responses of the teachers, peers, material gains and losses that followed the aggressive/prosocial behavior

RESULTS

Phase I – Preschool Teacher Interviews - The research enquiry, preschool teacher perceptions pertaining to aggressive behaviors of preschool children surfaced several interesting findings. Preschool teachers reported instances of physical/ overt aggressive behaviors (e.g. pinching, hitting, throwing things at others, kicking,)hitting the teacher when they are extremely angry, destroying art and craft work of peers and art/craft displayed in the preschool class as well as sophisticated relational/ verbal (e.g. crying, scolding, ignoring)aggressive behaviors.

Most frequently reported physical/ overt aggressive acts were pushing, shoving other children when going in a queue (n = 20), pinching (n = 23), hitting (n= 23), throwing things at others (n = 23), grabbing toys/art/craft of peers (n = 23), hitting the teacher when they are extremely angry (n = 05), destroying art and craft work of peers and art/craft displayed in the preschool class (n = 23). Moreover, preschool teachers, also perceived that fights frequently occurred when several children wanted to play with the most popular toy/s in the preschools (n = 23). Most frequently reported relational/verbal aggressive acts were, name calling (n = 23), scolding (n = 23), taunting, and social exclusion (e.g. refusing to allow peers included when playing house...) and using socially undesirable words [(‘*Kunuharupa*’) (n = 05)].

Children in my preschool use very bad words (meaning socially undesirable words which are not spoken in the public), words which I cannot even tell anyone when they think I am not paying attention to them. They learn them from the neighbourhood as well as from their parents. (Preschool teacher from a street children community).

Majority of the teachers (n = 20), reported that the intensity of the aggression varied among children in their preschools. Majority of the children were described to be ‘well behaved’ to displaying moderate aggressive behaviors; with few children (perceived to be one or two) displaying extreme persistent aggressive behavioural patterns. The instances of aggressive behaviors of these children (displaying extreme persistent aggressive acts); as quoted by the preschool teachers were throttling, twisting the hands of peers, and thrashing other children

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resulting bleeding/wounding. A significant number of preschool teachers (n = 15) also mentioned that they feel relieved on the days that 'these children' did not attend the preschool.

Preschool teachers (n= 23) also perceived that girls display more relational/verbal aggression while boys display more physical/ overt aggression. Large number of teachers also mentioned that if there were more boys in the class in a particular year, they would require additional help (i.e enlist the help of parents, get paid help) to manage the class, as there would be frequent episodes of overt/ physical aggressive acts.

Even though the general consensus of the interviewees was that girls are more helpful, several teachers stated instances of girls displaying verbal aggression. One preschool teacher recalled an instance when a girl displayed a fairly complicated form of relational aggression.

There is a girl in my class who always tells other children that she is either friendly or angry with them (indicating with the thumb the way she does it, thumbs up or down). One day all the children in the preschool were watching television. When children watch television they sit together in cliques, three children here... four children there... like that... This girl went to one clique and told them that she is friendly with them, showing the thumbs up sign, then went to another clique and told them that she's angry with them, with the thumbs down sign. This action made children in that group very irritated and angry; they too told her that they are angry with her. She went to yet another group; I think to seek help, because she told them 'Hello, they (indicating the group of children) are saying they are angry with me'. Those children ignored her. However, her second attempt was successful. To make things short, somehow she managed to persuade children in that group to come and fight with the children who said that they are angry with her. I was silently watching all this.

Significant number of teachers (n = 14) seemed to have perceived aggressive behaviors are more prevalent among children when they first come to school and gradually diminishes after the first two/three months. The types of acts reported were fighting for toys, swings and other play equipment in the playground, rolling on the floor, hitting, scratching other children. Teachers also mentioned that children did not like to sit inside the class, refuse to go in a queue to wash hands, wanted to own all the toys and did not share things with others during the first few weeks/months. Teachers perceived that only child in the family or children without playmates displayed relatively more aggressive behaviors desiring exclusive teacher attention and toys when they first come to the preschool. They attributed it to the absence of play opportunities with peers.

There is a child who used to pinch, hit and harass other children when he first came to the preschool. It has been five or six months since he first came to the preschool...though he still hits and harasses others I feel his aggressive behavior has decreased over time. It is really less

compared to the things he used to do. I think it could be due to the fact he gets the opportunity to stay with other small children. He is the only child. The parents are working, he is looked after by an aunt or grandmother.

Children's limited attention span was also attributed as a cause of aggression. Teacher interviews conveyed that short attention span of the preschool children leading to boredom impacted physical/relational aggression. Teachers also reported that children shout, scream, 'silently pinch the child next him/her', or hurt other children. Therefore, preschool teachers felt that activities carried out in the preschool should be of short to suit the attention span of the children. They also reported that children feel restless when they are forced to engage in frequent, routine and mundane activities or forced to stay inside the class for relatively long periods.

The type of community that children live in was also attributed as a cause contributing to the aggressive behaviors of the children. For instance, preschool teachers who teach children coming from violent frequent neighborhoods witnessing frequent fights among neighbors (e.g. children from street families, fishing communities, children whose parents were employed as plantation workers) described them to be more aggressive. Teachers perceived this to be due to be several reasons, 1. irritability/ impatience experienced by the child of being confined to the house by the caregivers due to occurrences of violence in their neighborhood; 2. Being exposed to orco-viewing of violent cartoons, Tamil & Hindi films; and 3. Frustration experienced due to inadequate play opportunities with peers.

Factors associated with type and quality of parenting was also reported to be concomitant with aggressive behaviors of the preschool children. Children who came from homes with strict/ rigid disciplinary structures with authoritarian caregivers often using physical abuse and/or corporal punishment or verbal abuse as a form of discipline (e.g. scolding, using undesirable words) were perceived to be comparatively more aggressive than children whose parents were authoritative and used positive discipline.

A child in my preschool destroys beautiful things in the classroom, hits other children, pinches and harasses girls in the class. His parents hit him and scolds him for everything, I think this is due to it.

Absence of parents [e.g. having a mother working as migrant workers in Middle East (n = 05) and a father in prison (n = 01)] was also recognized to causes and escalates of aggression within preschool children by the teachers. Teachers also perceived factors such as inadequate parental supervision, domestic violence, and parental (mostly paternal) alcoholism, watching/co-viewing violent television programs as instigators and escalators of aggression within preschool children. For example, when referring to a child whose parents are visually impaired, a preschool teacher said that *'he does not heed what the parents say and is constantly running to a nearby house to*

watch television, from which he has learnt to imitate aggressive behaviors'. Similarly, teachers reported that children who witnessed domestic violence and/ or parental (mainly paternal) abuse of alcohol, had mothers who worked as migrant workers in the Middle East were withdrawn, fearful, preferred to play by themselves and were extremely aggressive in the preschool, either harassing and/or destroying belongings of their peers, in comparison to children who did not experience these difficult circumstances.

Television was also named as an instigator, precursor and antecedent of aggression within children by a large majority of the participants ($n = 21$), while none cited its positive impacts. Preschool teachers were quick to refer to negative impacts of television such as imitation of relational/physical aggressive acts (i.e. shooting, hitting or using undesirable words). Preschool teachers also reported that children who co-viewed violent television programs or videos with their parents (especially fathers)/ care givers displayed more physical/ overt aggressive behaviors than others.

Results – Phase II – Observation of Aggressive Behaviors of Preschool Children in Four Selected Preschools - Based on the PSBS-T-SV scores, means and standard deviations for each behavior (RA and OA) were calculated. A positive relationship was observed between overt and relational aggression ($r = .81$) while significant relationship between relational aggression and prosocial behaviour ($r = .01$) and overt aggression and prosocial behaviour were not observed ($r = -.248$).

Though there was only a marginal difference between boys and girls, more boys ($n = 06$) than girls ($n = 03$) displayed forms of overt aggression while more girls ($n = 04$) than boys ($n = 03$) displayed acts of relational aggression.

Instances of overt aggression observed were pushing/shoving, pinching, biting, kicking, spitting, grabbing toys/ books from peers, running away with toys belonging to other children, breaking art/ craft projects and grabbing and running toys/ craft of peers. It was also noted, that the boys in the observed group, with high scores of aggression often initiated fights and fought with their peers.

Instances of relational aggression observed were complaining to the teacher misbehaviors of other children, telling other children that "I am no longer your friend", indicating thumbs down sign to peers to convey that 'I am angry with you/ mad at you or I am not your friend anymore', (Observed to create distress within the victim), frowning, scowling at other children or as well as threatening peers that they will give 'toku' (hitting the head with knuckles of the hand). Relative to overt aggression extremely few episodes of relational aggression were observed. Girls as well as boys were observed to be displaying acts of relational aggression. The outcomes of relational aggressive episodes were relatively analogous to those outcomes observed in overt aggression

(i.e. the victim appeared to be distressed, cried and left the situation or complained to the teacher that 'he/she is mad/ angry at me').

Also observed were behaviors which could be categorized as "playful aggressive" acts or parodies. Instances of playful aggression included pretending to shoot at other children with guns made of play blocks, playing hit and run games, turn taking in hitting and hurting (e.g. in a dyad, one child who was hit pretended to get hurt, then hit the other child and he/she pretended to get hurt himself/herself, one child pretending to be an animal, crawling on the floor and pretending to bite other children, hit other children).

Moreover, when children displaying prominent aggressive behavioral patterns interacted with children of similar behavioral patterns the probability occurrence of aggressive acts were comparatively higher than when a child with prominent aggressive behavior pattern interacted with a child displaying a prominent prosocial or non-aggressive behavioral pattern. If a child with a prominent aggressive behavior pattern hit a child with a moderate or prominent prosocial behavioral pattern it was observed that prosocial children displayed a propensity to ignore it as an accident in the first instance or used words to express their dislike such as "Why did you hit me?", "Do not hit me I do not like it!" or walk away from the aggressor. Hence, during such interactions fights or conflicts were less frequent.

DISCUSSION

Phase I – Preschool Teacher Interviews - The purpose of the interview phase was to explore the nature and types of aggressive behaviors perceived by preschool teachers from varied preschool communities. Findings from the teacher interviews conveyed that children displayed overt/ physical (Dodge, 1980; Dodge & Newman, 1981) as well as verbal/relational aggression (Crick et al., 1997). Hence, findings of the research convey that relational/verbal as well as overt aggression maybe a universal phenomenon, even though there maybe cultural variation in which it is expressed. Moreover, the findings also came up with an instance of a complicated form of relational aggression, similar to that described by Ostrov, Woods, Jansen, Casas, and Crick (2004) in their article title "This white crayon doesn't work...".

The preschool teachers attributed causes of aggression to varied reasons such as: 1. individual (e.g. being the only child in the family) 2. Factors associated with type and quality of parenting provided to children (e.g. inadequate parental supervision, absence of mothers/ fathers, excessive use of corporal punishment/verbal abuse) and 3. Being subjected to domestic, community and television violence; was in par with the previous research findings (Levendosky, Huth-Bocks, Shapiro, & Semel, 2003; Anderson, Huston, Schmitt, Linebarger, & Wright, 2001) carried out in the Euro-American contexts.

The findings of present research were also congruent with the literature which suggests that there is a strong association between alcohol and domestic violence (McMurrin, 1999). Researchers speculate that exposure to domestic violence has particularly adverse effects on preschool children because they are at the stage of developing a sense of trust, security and attachment (Levendosky, Huth-Bocks, Shapiro, & Semel, 2003; DeMulder, Denham, Schmidt, & Mitchell, 2000; Raver & Knitzer, 2002) and do not possess sophisticated language and cognitive skills to discuss and deal with traumatic events.

Direct and indirect impact of community (Farver et al., 1999; Farver et al., 2005) and television (Garbarino et al., 1991) violence, also records similarities with those carried out in the Euro-American contexts. Research also conveys that parental co-viewing preferences, habits, and orientations toward television influence children's viewing, both with and without parents (St. Peters, Fitch, Huston, Wright, and Eakins, 1991), and co-viewing of controversial content without making comments sometimes may communicate tacit approval of the behavior witnessed, thereby enhancing the effect of such content (Slaby, Roedell, Arezzo, & Hendrix, 1995).

Strength of this phase of the study lies in its method of data collection; semi-structured interview guide used to collect a data from a diverse group of preschool teachers representing varied ethnic, geographical, socio-economical, teacher qualification and experiences in Sri Lanka. Outcome of the interviews provided rich descriptions and in depth information of preschool teacher perceptions pertaining to nature, type, prevalence, and antecedents of aggressive behaviors within Sri Lankan preschool children, which afforded the opportunity to examine similarities, differences, and distinctiveness in the gathered data against the back drop of global research findings (Crick et al, 1997; Coie et al, 1983; Dodge, 1980).

Although this section of the study presents significant findings on Sri Lankan preschool teacher perceptions, practices, attitudes and needs pertaining to aggressive behaviors in preschool children, all data for this section was generated using teachers' self-reports. Even though self-reports are in a unique position to report on internal views especially regarding the practices, beliefs, attitudes and needs (Raviv et al., 2001); there are questions about the validity and reliability of teacher perceptions as teachers may over identify the behaviors of the children (Stipek et al., 1997; McEvoy, 2003). Therefore, caution should be exercised in interpreting the findings reported, on children's aggressive behaviors.

Phase II – Observation of Aggressive Behaviors of Preschool Children in Four Elected Preschools - The purpose of this study was to observe the nature and types of aggressive behaviors of the Sri Lankan preschool children. In order achieve this objective all children (n = 135) from four selected preschools in Colombo district (Capital of Sri Lanka) were assessed for their relational aggression, over aggression and prosocial behaviour using PSBS – T- SV. Based on the scores, 16 children who scored high on relational and overt aggression were observed.

Based on the findings of the observations following interpretations were made. First, the overall findings do not indicate significant differences by gender for relational and overt aggression. This was a finding incongruent with the previous literature and research (Siegler et al, 2003; McEvoy et al., 2003; Cricket al, 1999; Cricket al, 1997; Ostrov et al, 2004). However, all these studies have been carried out in western contexts. Therefore, future studies need to look into the cultural aspects of relational aggression displayed by Sri Lankan girls and boys.

Second, the nature and types of observed overt aggressive behaviors were congruent with those reported by the preschool teachers during the interviews. Findings also conveyed that one episode of overt aggression was instrumental in creating contagion or chain reactions of aggression in the class, again a finding congruent with the previous research (Goldstein, Arnold, Rosenberg, Stowe, & Oritz, 2001).

Third, findings also provided new information regarding the manner in which aggression was expressed by the observed group of preschool children. Each child reacted differently to aggressive behaviors which were labeled as 'playful aggressive parodies' by the author. Examples for these behaviours were standing and crying, attacking the playful aggressor or shouting and running away. The observations revealed while some children (mostly boys in the observed group) seemed to enjoy these acts, others (mostly girls) seemed to be genuinely distressed and fear the child who took the role of the 'playful aggressor'. Some children were dragged into such play- aggression situations (shooting each other, being shot at, and being chased by the child pretending to be an animal) though they did not desire to be so included. However, when included they spontaneously went on with this playful aggressive parody while indicating that they do not want be part of it by conveying their distress in different ways such as crying or protesting. Since preschool children find it difficult to differentiate between reality, pretence and false belief, such playful forms of aggression may also have initiated/ increased or escalated aggressive behaviors within preschool children. Therefore, future researches need to identify whether this 'playful aggressive parody' is a unique form of culturally expressed aggression for Sri Lankan pre/school children. Also, whether children perceive these play aggression parodies to be actual acts of aggression. Moreover, when developing an intervention program, program developers would need to explore the possibility replacing these playful aggressive parodies' with 'playful prosocial behaviour parodies'.

Fourth, the outcomes of relational aggressive episodes were quite similar to those outcomes observed in overt aggression (i.e. the victim appeared to be distressed, cried and left the situation or complained to the teacher that 'he/she is mad/ angry at me') as well as stated in the previous research (Goldstein et al., 2001). However, varied forms of relational aggression listed in the research literature such as not talking to each other, direct social exclusion, spreading rumors about each other, and threatening (Crick et al., 1997), were not observed during this phase. Though this may be attributable to the limited observation time, there is a need to explore whether expressions of relational aggression differs across cultures.

The study being the first of its kind (i.e. direct observation of children's relational and overt aggression in the naturalistic preschool environment across different activities in four preschools with varied backgrounds conducted in the Sri Lankan milieu) contributes unique information pertaining to the aggressive behaviors of Sri Lankan preschool children. However, given the low frequency of aggression in the observation data several limitations in this phase is recorded. First, it was difficult to observe the natural behaviors of the children at a stretch due to various activities such as exhibitions, sports meets, year-end concerts, and holidays. Second, inability to record conversation between and among children due to the non-use of sophisticated technological instruments was a clear constraint especially in recording instances of relational aggression. Hence, future research conducted in Sri Lankan milieu should consider the use of more sophisticated technological devices as the literature reveals that the use of video cameras, microphones, and independent observers in the preschool situation have yielded a wealth of valuable, objective information about relational and overt aggression in young children (Tapper et al., 2002; Pepler et al., 1995).

Aggression which prevails from early childhood onward, and other forms of conduct-regulation difficulties conveys stable phenomena (Cairns et al., 1988; Coie & Dodge, 1983), been associated

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with and predictive of poor academic performance, disruptive behavior at school, increased risk for school dropout, and engaging in delinquent activities (Coe et al 1998), and relatively high prevalence of externalizing behaviors within Sri Lankan preschool children (Samarakkody et al, 2012), an in depth analysis pertaining to aggressive behaviors within Sri Lankan preschool children seem to be a high priority.

Though large number of research studies has been carried out in the Euro-American contexts pertaining to this topic very few studies exist in the South Asia on this area. Hence, this study contributes to the global as well as local research milieu of aggression and preschool children recording similarities with global findings of types, nature, developmental milestones, gender differences, and antecedents on aggressive behaviors of young children. Further, this study also illustrates the significance of investigating socio-cultural ethos pertaining to childhood aggression, in the continuum of meaning making and identifying/ developing plausible interventions.

However, the present study was limited by its sample size on preschool children observed. Therefore, future research need to look closely into the cultural and ethno-political precursors of aggression in Asian contexts with a more diverse and large sample. Moreover, as a country plagued by varied types of violent acts for almost three decades, due to the conflict which prevailed; Sri Lankan children could be more vulnerable to the impact of violence and abuse in comparison to the children growing up in the Euro-American contexts. Also, they may have developed passive aggressive behaviors or acts of aggression different to those displayed by children living in non-violent contexts, which future studies requires to explore.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Effectiveness of Flip Teaching Strategy on Academic Achievement of Student Teachers

Himanshu Tripathi^{1*}

ABSTRACT

The concept of Flipped classroom is based on the concept of active learning, student engagement, hybrid course design and course podcasting. The classroom becomes a workshop where interaction among Educator and students takes place. Since effectively flipping a classroom brings many benefits, it will provide opportunities to B.Ed student teachers to learn at their own pace easily. In this study, B.Ed student teachers from two different teacher training institutes were randomly selected (22 from each having Economics as their optional teaching subject). In an institute, 11 students out of 22 were randomly assigned as the control and rest as the experimental group. So, 22 students were in the control and the experimental group combining both the institutes. The result in this strategy seems to be effective in teaching Economics by student teachers, without any monetary burden in creating active learning environment in the classroom.

Keywords: *Effectiveness, Flip Teaching Strategy, Academic Achievement, Student Teachers*

The Flipped classroom seems to be one of the latest fashion in teaching-learning process. Sometimes it is the reverse gear that helps us to take out our vehicle out of a pit and then proceed smoothly a head on the highway. Flipping the classroom refers to another form of Blended Learning where a student is tasked with homework usually via a video or audio file. The classroom time is spent clarifying and applying new knowledge through problem solving and discussion method. Flipped instruction is also known as backwards classroom, reverse instruction or reverse teaching.

The concept of Flipped classroom is based on the concept of active learning, student engagement and hybrid course design and course podcasting. The classroom becomes a workshop where interaction among Educator and students takes place. Students are encouraged for individual inquiry and collaborative effort. We can say that a Flipped classroom stands on four pillars:

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Flexible Environment	Learning Culture	Intentional Content	Professional Educator
Flipped Learning creates flexible spaces in which students choose when and where to learn. Educators establish spaces and the time frames that permit students to interact. They continually observe, monitor and provide students with different ways to learn content.	Flipped Learning model deliberately shifts instruction from teacher centred to a learner-centered approach, where topic is explored in depth. In turn it creates an actively involved environment where knowledge is firmly constructed.	Educators develop intentionally Flipped model to develop conceptual understanding as well as procedural fluency in students. Educators use Intentional content which is student-centered and adopts active learning strategies.	The role of a Professional Educator is to continually observe their students, provide them with feedback in real time as needed and assess their work by conducting formative assessments during class time through observation and by recording data to transform future instruction.

Need of Flip in Teaching Economics:

According to Bloom (1984), “an average student who receives one-on-one attention is enabled by constant feedback, corrective process and can jump into the 98th percentile of the student population in academic achievement” (Houston and Lin, 2012). This was stated 32 years ago but most classes are still taught with teacher-centered lectures and only the persistent students seek out one-on-one assistance. Perhaps the first research relating to Flipped classrooms in undergraduate Economics education is Lage et al. (2000). Maxwell et al. (2005) find that when problem-based learning is used in a large sample of High School Economics students, their performance may increase if teachers are properly trained in both the new teaching techniques and in Economics. The Flipped format has allowed us to cover more material. For example, in the principles of Macroeconomics class when Flipped strategy is used, there is sufficient time to add a unit dealing with International Economics. This was also found by Bland (2006) who was also able to cover more material in a Flipped classroom compared with a traditional lecture based system of teaching. Yamarik (2007) compared two Economics courses, one taught in traditional lecture format and one with cooperative learning. He found that student’s performance on exams was higher in cooperative learning. Roach (2014) found that students reacted positively to the use of a Flipped classroom in principles of Microeconomics class. Calimeris and Sauer (2014) present empirical evidence that in a randomized experiment, “following a negative adjustment period, students who experienced the Flipped teaching method scored significantly higher on midterm and final exams than did the control group.” Thus Economics teaching research appears suggest that students react positively to the use of a Flipped classroom and definitely it increases their performance.

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Again, two of the problems that could stand in the way of an instructor not experimenting with the use of a Flipped classroom are the **fixed cost problem** and the **inertia problem**. The fixed cost problem relates mainly to the work it takes to make the videos that students watch before class. In this study investigator tried to provide link to the sample that is already available on internet. To enhance active learning in the classroom educators should divide students in small groups and try to interact with each group. Each group should to be motivated to interact with each other. Moreover educators should also be trained in the new strategy. This will help him in creating the learning environment more active.

Since effectively flipping a classroom brings many benefits, it will provide opportunities to B.Ed student teacher to learn at their own pace easily. So the researcher decided to choose the topic **“Effectiveness of Flip Teaching Strategy on Academic Achievement of Student Teachers”**.

Objectives:

- (i) To develop Flip teaching strategy for B.Ed student teachers in teaching Economics.
- (ii) To find out if there is any significant difference in academic achievement of the control and the experimental group before and after applying the Flip strategy.
- (iii) To find out if there is any significant difference in attainment of knowledge and application of the content between the control and the experimental group.

Hypotheses:

- (i) There is no significant difference in the pre-test scores of the control and the experimental group of student teachers.
- (ii) There is no significant difference in the post-test scores of the control and the experimental group of student teachers.
- (iii) There is no significant difference in attainment of knowledge and application of the content taught between the control and experimental group post teaching.

METHODOLOGY

B.Ed student teachers from two different teacher training institutes were randomly selected (22 from each having Economics as their optional teaching subject). In an institute, 11 students out of 22 were randomly assigned as control and rest as the experimental group. So, 22 students were present in the control and the experimental group combining both the institutes.

A pre-test was conducted in both the control and experimental group. Control group was taught with conventional Lecture method and the experimental group was taught with the Flip strategy. Later a post test on the same achievement test was conducted for both the groups in order to check the effectiveness of the Flip strategy.

Sample:

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44 participants from two different Teacher Training Colleges of Trivandrum district in Kerala were selected. Economics Teaching is their optional subject at B.Ed level. The two colleges were GCTE Thycud and St. Thomas Training College Mukkolakkal, Trivandrum.

Tools:

- Achievement test (50 questions on Microeconomics- Law of Supply and Demand was constructed and validated by the researcher, equally divided into knowledge and application category).
- The link of Khan Academy which has already prepared video lessons on Micro Economics- Law of Demand and Law of Supply was provided to the experimental group.
<https://www.khanacademy.org/economics-finance-domain/microeconomics/supply-demand-equilibrium/demand-curve-tutorial/v/law-of-demand>
<https://www.khanacademy.org/economics-finance-domain/microeconomics/supply-demand-equilibrium/supply-curve-tutorial/v/law-of-supply>

Statistical Techniques Used:

- Mean and Standard deviation
- t-test to determine the significant difference between the means of the control group and the experimental group.

HYPOTHESES TESTING

(i) There is no significant difference in the pre-test scores of the control and the experimental group Student teachers.

Group	Mean	SD	t-value	Remarks
Control	14.46	2.23	1.623	Not significant*
Experimental	15.97	3.75		

*.05 level

So, hypothesis is correct and accepted that there is no significant difference in the pre-test scores of the control and experimental group student teachers. Both the groups are at par in terms of the content knowledge before teaching. From the table data it is evident that performance of both the groups in achievement test is below average.

(ii) There is no significant difference in the pre-test scores of the control and experimental group.

Group	Mean	Std Dev	t-value	Remarks
Control	21.96	1.47	21.25	Significant*
Experimental	35.97	2.72		

*.01 level

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So, hypothesis is rejected as there is significant difference in the post test scores of the control and experimental group teacher trainees. Experimental group was benefitted largely with the Flip method of teaching.

(iii) There is no significant difference in attainment of knowledge and application of the content taught between the control and experimental group post teaching.

Group	Control Group		Experimental Group		t-value	Remarks
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Knowledge	12.79	2.47	17.46	2.67	6.022	Significant*
Application	9.17	0.47	18.51	2.77	15.59	Significant*

*.01 level

So, this can be concluded that there is significant difference in attainment of knowledge and application of the content taught between control and experimental group. Moreover, it should be noted that more benefit is seen at application of the content taught in the experimental group.

CONCLUSION

With the passage of time and technology, there has been a tremendous shift in the paradigm of teaching. Demand for active learning is increasing which in turn increases student's performance. One of the most popular applications of active learning is the Flipped classroom. Here topics are introduced to students in video format before classroom teaching and the class time is spent on active learning exercises. Though the cost of using such techniques was always questioned. Through this paper researcher tried to show that both the inertia problem and the fixed cost problem are smaller than they are thought. Thus, Economics teacher should experiment with a Flipped classroom by experimenting with a single lecture. We can watch videos prepared by the Khan Academy. In addition, the active learning exercises can focus on problem based learning which should identify the single lecture in a course that might be well suited in turning it into a Flipped classroom. This strategy seems to be an effective one in teaching Economics by student teachers, without any monetary burden in creating active learning environment in the classroom.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Stress among Teachers: A Theoretical Examination

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ABSTRACT

The word 'Stress' is defined by the Oxford dictionary as "state of affair involving of demand on physical or mental energy". Stress is a state of mental tension and worry caused by problems in one's life, work, etc. Stress is a general term applied to various psychological (mental) and physiological (bodily) pressures experienced or felt by people throughout their lives. Hans Selye, one of the leading authorities on the concept of stress, described stress as "the rate of all wear and tear caused by life. Every one experience stress whether it is within the family, business, organization or any other economic activity. Stress is a big problem in our society. The main objective of this is to assess the level of stress of the teachers working in Universities, Secondary Schools, Elementary Schools, and teachers working in different organisations. Researchers have made all attempts to critically examine the studies conducted in the field of stress.

Keywords: *Stress, Teachers, Theoretical Examination*

Teaching profession has traditionally been regarded as low stress occupation (French, et.al., 1982) but during the past two decades the situation is somersaulted (Olivier & Venter, 2003). Teaching is becoming a more challenging profession worldwide. Surveys conducted worldwide revealed widespread concern about the effects of stress on teachers' sense of well-being and their willingness to stay in the profession. Before 1970's, teaching was considered as as a noble profession. However, in the recent years, researches have proved that teaching profession is one of the stressful profession (Ravichandran & Rajendran, 2007).

Now the question arises of why the job teachers shifted from low stress profession to high stress profession? Various reasons have been discussed in researches to address the question of why teachers are becoming more stressful. Some answers have also been supplied that teachers has to face different demands from school management, parents and society. At the same time, teachers are required acquire many new skills to cope effectively in a very fast changing society. They

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have to equip themselves in terms of creativity, innovations and critical thinking. Teachers are blindly criticized if they fail to provide knowledge and services to society according to expectations. The issue of stress among teachers is becoming as one of the serious problem where adequate attention is needed. Experiencing high level of stress could lead to various negative consequences such as poor performance, lack of commitment, lack of motivation and poor quality of classroom teaching. Thus, stress seems pervasive among all teachers working at different level in different institutions.

Stress and University Teachers

This section of this review covers the type, level, sources and remedies of the stress experienced by University teachers. Onifade (2000) conducted a research entitled determinants of occupational stress and coping strategies of physical education teachers. The concern of this study revealed those factors which stress physical education teachers in the performance of their job. The results from the study indicated that too many students and not enough physical education facilities/equipment was the most stressful factor.

Aggarwal (2012) in her study on self-efficacy as predictor of occupational stress among academic faculties of Punjab University and Guru Nanak Dev University” has explained the interactive and relative effects of self-efficacy on occupational stress of academic faculty. The findings indicated that self-efficacy is effective in predicting role insufficiency and role ambiguity. On the basis of her study she suggested that training workshops on self-efficacy will help the teachers to cope up with stress due to role insufficiency and role ambiguity.

Shikieri & Musa (2012) studied the factors associated with occupational stress and their effects on organizational performance in a Sudanese University. They attempted to determine the factors associated with occupational stress and their relationship with organizational performance at one of the private universities in Sudan. Their research study depicted that on average the teacher’s experienced high degree of job stress. Job stressors affected the general physical health, job satisfaction and work performance as well as commitment of the teachers negatively. The study recommended that the university needs to elevate the situation and resolve all the factors affecting the employees as per situation.

Nagra & Arora (2013) conducted the research on occupational stress and health among teacher educators. They strived to find out the level of occupational stress and its relationship to health among the teacher educators in relation to their gender and marital status. The results of their study revealed that teacher educators experienced moderate level of occupational stress & significant differences were indicated regarding occupational stress among teacher educators in relation to gender and marital status.

Sindhu (2014) conducted an empirical research entitled “a study on stressors among college teachers.” They analysed various stressors among college teachers by using various research

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tools. On the basis of the findings of the study the researcher has clearly concluded that the college teachers are affected by stress especially work Stress and also recommended that they must adapt some coping strategies for overcoming the stress.

Bhuvaneshwari (2013) conducted a case study on psychological and physical stress undergone by married women working in deferent teaching institutions. Researcher revealed that stress in married working women is caused due to long working hours, various family and official commitments, harassments and improper work life balance. Such type of stress leads to various problems such as prolonged headaches, hypertension and obesity. The researcher clearly concluded that Stress can be relieved from institutional support, balancing work and life by spending time with family, entertainments, yoga and rest.

Ghania, Ahmad & Ibrahim (2014) studies the stress among special education teachers in Malaysia. They investigated the factors that contribute stress and level of occupational stress among special education teachers who are teaching in special education classes in the state of Penang, Malaysia. The results from their study revealed that pupil misbehaviour as the main source of teacher stress among special education teachers, followed by workload, time and resources difficulties, recognition, and interpersonal relationship.

Research on stress among academic and general staff of universities from across the globe indicates that the phenomenon of stress in universities is alarmingly widespread and increasing. From the above studies, their findings and recommendations it can be concluded that stress among university teachers is somehow similar at different levels of positions. Researchers have pointed out different stressors among university teachers.

Researchers have clearly pointed out the role of gender and marital status with regard to stress (Nagra & Arora, 2013) while other researchers have indicated role insufficiency and role ambiguity as a factor of stress (Aggarwal, 2012). Apart from that some other has clearly concluded that university/ college are mostly affected by not other than work stress. When it comes to married working woman, some of the case studies revealed that the stress among this folk is because of long working hours, various family and official commitments, harassments and improper work life balance (Bhuvaneshwari, 2013). The consequences of such stressors may result in hypertension, depression, obesity and headache according to the study. Many working women in India are stuck in stress and depression.

This stress can be reduced by sharing their personal work with the family members and official works with the subordinates at work place. Infect long working hours induces stress in married working women, such stress can be reduced by giving number of breaks between the working hours and providing some refreshments for overcoming physical and mental tiredness during working time and also shifting timings can be framed to reduce the working hours.

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Various other factors depicted by various studies are private jobs (teachers), scarcity of physical education facilities, equipments along with too many students and some of the studies also signified misbehaviour from the part of pupils / students as a main source of stress among teachers (Onifade, 2000; Ghania, Ahmad & Ibrahim, 2014). The above data clearly indicates that too many students and not enough physical education facilities/equipment was the most stressful factor for the teachers.

In order to reduce stress, management can provide better facilities and necessary equipments. It is also necessary that physical education administrators must be aware of the many factors that are potential stressors on physical education teachers. Employees are valuable assets of the organisation and they increase the profitability of the institute. The university needs to elevate the situation and resolve all the factors affecting the employees. This could be achieved by constructing clear formal rules, policies and guidelines so that all the employees have to fulfil.

In addition, the university could either increase the number of staff needed to perform the tasks and enrolled adequate number of students, increase the overall paid salaries to compensate for such stressors. Keeping above discussion into mind, we can conclude that different teachers face different levels of stress and this stress are caused by different reasons and originates from different sources.

Stress and Secondary School Teachers

This section of this review covers the type, level, sources and remedies of the stress experienced by secondary school teachers. Aftab & Khatoon (2012) investigated the demographic differences and occupational stress of secondary school teachers. They examined the relationships of a set of independent variables (gender, qualification, teaching experience,) with occupational stress among secondary school teachers. Findings of the study revealed that nearly half of the secondary school teachers experience moderate level of stress in their job setting. Male teachers reported more occupational stress towards job than the females. They also found that revealed that trained graduate teachers experienced higher occupational stress than post-graduate teachers. Finally they revealed that teachers served for 6-10 years as teacher experienced highest level of stress while the teachers served for 0-5 years experienced least amount of stress.

Ekundayo & Kolawole (2013) conducted study entitled “stress among secondary school teachers in Ekiti State, Nigeria”. They examined the various sources of stress among teachers of secondary schools in Ekiti State and also examined the coping strategies adapted by the teachers. The results revealed that poor working conditions, poor relations with super ordinates and late payment of salaries were major sources of stress. The study also revealed that managing one’s time effectively is the main strategy for coping with stress.

Reddy & Anuradha (2013) conducted a study on occupational stress of teachers working at higher secondary level. They revealed that around 88 percent of higher secondary teachers are

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experiencing moderate and high levels of occupational stress. Researchers suggested some measures which could prove beneficial to teachers in coping with stress. The measures includes improve self esteem, build self confidence, develop a good sense of humour, practice yoga and meditation, exercise regularly, foster a supportive friend circle.

Kousar and Sohail (2014) conducted the research on occupational role stress (ORS) and health related quality of life among secondary school teachers (SST). They attempted to find out the role stressors among secondary school teachers and the relationship of occupational role stress to the health related quality of life of the teachers. They concluded that men S.S.T.s experienced more ORS than women S.S.T.s and also revealed that men S.S.T.s had poor physical health as compared to women S.S.T.s.

Manabete, John, Makinde & Duwa (2016) conducted a research on job stress among school administrators and teachers in Nigerian secondary schools and technical colleges. They examined stress, job or workplace stress among teachers in Nigeria. Findings revealed that role ambiguity, poor relations with boss, work overload are the main sources of stress among teachers.

While concluding the above findings and results it is noteworthy to bring into notice various factors of stress identified by various researchers. Some of the researchers have revealed that poor working conditions, poor relationships and late payment of salaries as major sources of stress among teachers (Ekundayo & Kolawole, 2013). One of the interesting observed by some of the researchers indicate that male secondary school teachers experience more stress than woman secondary school teachers which results in poor physical health of men as compared to women, studies revealed (Aftab & Khatoon, 2012). As we all can observe that stress affects the efficiency of the individual.

Another finding has clearly revealed that role ambiguity, poor relations with boss, work overload are the main sources of stress among teachers (Manabete, John, Makinde & Duwa, 2016). The first step towards tackling stress is to acknowledge its existence. So there is a need to provide proper conducive environment and support to teachers to maintain individual stress at their workplace. Teachers may alter the way to things in optimistic manner which will facilitate them in improving their functional skills and reduce stress. This will ultimately help for higher satisfaction from the profession. Besides that, the institution or management may investigate the causes for stress and evaluate the organizational climate of the school. They can also suggest ways, like workshops and seminars to cope with stress effectively.

There are some other measures which could prove beneficial to teachers in coping with stress like, improve self esteem, build self confidence, develop a good sense of humour, get adequate sleep, practice yoga and meditation, exercise regularly, and foster a supportive friend circle. In

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addition to that effective time management among the teachers is also a main strategy towards coping with stress in the work place. These coping strategies go a long way in reducing stressful work situations and improving the effectiveness of the teachers.

Stress and Elementary Teachers

This section of this review covers the type, level, sources and remedies of the stress experienced by elementary school teachers. Eres & Atanasoska (2011) carried out a study entitled occupational stress of teachers: a comparative study between Turkey and Macedonia tried to determine stress level of Turkish and Macedonian teachers living in different socio-cultural and economic situations. The results of their study revealed that Turkish teachers have mild stress levels and Macedonian teachers have moderate stress levels. There is a meaningful difference in the stress level points of Turkish and Macedonian teachers. Policy makers are advised to analyse the teacher training and assessment system with the assumption that personal and social characteristics and working conditions may have an effect on teacher stress.

Hasan (2014) studied the occupational stress of primary school teachers of primary government and private school teachers. The findings revealed that primary school teachers have found to be highly stressed. Findings also revealed that the private primary school teachers have also found to be highly stressed in comparison to their government primary school teacher counterparts.

Nobile (2014) investigated the relationships between biographical variables of gender, age, experience, and employment position and occupational stress of staff members in catholic primary schools. They found that age, gender and position were related to three out of the four identified domains of occupational stress as well as overall occupational stress. In addition, male staff experience higher levels of general occupational stress than their female colleague overall. It was recommended by the researcher that there should be a reasonable quantum of research regarding stress of teacher's aid.

Demjaha, Minov, Stoleski, & Zafirova (2015) investigated the stress causing factors among teachers in elementary schools and their relationship with demographic and job characteristics. The results of the study depicted that the highest levels of perceived teachers' work-related stress were caused by changes in terms and conditions without consultation and given responsibility without the authority to take decisions.

Demjaha, Bislimovska & Mijakoshi (2015) examined the level of work related stress among teachers in elementary schools. The findings revealed that the majority of interviewed teachers perceived their work-related stress as high or very high. In terms of the relationship between the level of teachers' stress and certain demographic and job characteristics, the level of work-related stress has shown significantly high relation to gender, age, levels of grades taught as well as working experience, and significant relation to the level of education.

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While considering the above findings it would be worth to conclude that occupational stress among elementary school teachers is the result of various factors such as the mind set of being exploited in case of private schools. While comparing it with government school teachers they are less burdened (Hasan, 2014). Besides this some of the researchers have emphasized the relationship between various biographical variables like gender, age, experience and employment position etc. It was found during the research that three out of four variables excluding experience were identified the domains of occupational stress (Nobile, 2014).

Few researchers indicated personal, social characteristics and working conditions as factors of stress on teachers, along with that work related stress were caused due to the changes in terms and conditions without consulting teachers and given them responsibility without authority to take decisions, some studies revealed (Eres & Atanasoska, 2011) & (Demjaha, Minov, Stoleski, & Zafirova 2015). So in order to reduce stress among teachers the administration may inform them before given any responsibility and also allow them to take their decisions.

Stress and Teachers in Different Organisation

This section of this review covers the type, level, sources and remedies of the stress experienced by teachers working in various institutions. Baker, Shammari & Jefri (1995) examined different Saudi organizations to assess stress levels and their differences with respect to nationality (Saudis, Arabs, Asians and Westerners), type of organization (public, private). The results revealed that the main source of stress for employees working in private organizations is the lack of knowledge about their performance, while this is not the case for employees working in public organizations. Researchers also pointed out that Saudi employees have the highest levels of stress, with Arabs second, Asians third, while Westerners (Europeans and North Americans) registered the lowest levels of stress.

Bashir & Ramay (2010) investigated the relationship between job stress and job performance on bank employees of banking sector in Pakistan. They found that there was significant negative correlation between job stress and job performances. Results also indicated that job stress significantly reduces the performance of an individual. Researchers suggested that organization may facilitate supportive culture within the working atmosphere of the organization to reduce the unwanted level of stress.

Bakshi & Kochhar (2011) conducted a research entitled, “A Study of Stress Role on Faculty: An Analysis of Professional Institutions.” During their research they tried to find out the factors which are responsible for stress in faculty members of professional institutions. The findings of their study revealed that the factors of their stress caused by due to the interference of the employment organizational responsibilities with their family organizational role, lack of their involvement in decision making that reduced their responsibilities and the participatory model in their organizational set up which enhanced their responsibilities to the point of exhaustion and

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also revealed that majority of the faculty members revealed that stress was basically due to their laziness.

Hunnur, & Bagli, (2014) conducted a study on relationship between occupation stress index dimensions and demographic variables of police sub inspectors and asst. sub inspectors in police department. During Their Research they tried to identify many of the stresses that are placed on police personnel, and various stressors and the relationship between the stress dimensions and the demographic variables like age, education qualification and work experience. The results of their findings indicated that the occupation stress dimensions do not differ significantly on the basis of demographic variables such as age, education qualification, and work experience.

Nirmala, & Babu (2015) carried out a study on job stress among health care professionals in selected hospitals with special reference to age and gender. They investigated the levels of stress among various health care professionals (doctors, nurses and supporting staff) to identify the difference according to the age groups, gender and marital status. The findings suggested that health care professional's age 41 years feels significantly higher level of job stress when compared to other age groups. Male health care professionals feel significantly high stress when compared to females. According to the marital status, the married health care professionals feel significantly higher level of job stress when compared to unmarried professionals.

While reviewing the above discussed literature regarding stress among different organisations, it can be concluded that the findings of some studies revealed that the factors of organisational stress are the results of interference of employment organisational responsibilities with their family organisational role. It has also been revealed that most of the faculty members signified stress because of their laziness (Bakshi & Kochhar, 2011). Other studies relating to health care professionals revealed that male health care professionals feel significantly high stress when compared to females (Babu, 2015). Accordingly married health care professionals feel significantly higher level of job stress when compared to unmarried professionals. Some of the researchers indicated that the occupational stress dimension do not differ significantly on the basis of demographic variables such as age, educational qualification and work experience (Hunnur, & Bagli, 2014). Few studies revealed that the main source of stress for employees working in private organisation is the lack of knowledge of their performance (Baker, Shammari & Jefri, 1995). It has been also revealed that job stress significantly reduces the performance.

CONCLUSION

This paper was an attempt to discover the stress levels of the teachers working in various organisations. The paper thoroughly covered stress among teachers Working in University, secondary schools, elementary schools and various other organisations. The studies conducted by the researchers have revealed that the teaching profession is no more the profession of a little stress. Neck to neck competition in all fields is now reality in the era of Globalisation where

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whole world is competing with each other. Researchers have suggested several ways to put check over the unjustified stress to promote sound health and well-being. Future researches may suggest some intervention strategies to manage the stress effectively.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Mental Health and Well-Being of Caregivers: A Review of the Literature

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ABSTRACT

The present piece of work attempts to fill this knowledge gap by capturing different shades of caregiving experiences of family members who were engaged in caregiving for their chronically ill family members or relatives. Maximum studies of caregiving indulge in caregivers of mentally ill. This study intends to apprehend how family caregivers in chronic illness perspective create implication of their caring role in the Indian setup.

Keywords: *Mental Health, Well-Being, Caregivers*

Caregiving may mean direct care of all types also including work done by paid workers such as nurses, social workers, and counselors. But the focus here is not on professional caregivers, but on family caregivers. Family caregivers are emotionally involved in the process of caregiving, thus although they may undertake caregiving as a responsibility still they may perceive a threat to their physical and psychological being. Thus caregiving being associated with emotional, financial and social turmoil forms a ground for research in itself.

Dr. Bruce Finke states that “Caregiving is a critical issue for the Indian Health System”. In India, caregivers are taken for granted because it is culturally expected that the family will look after the chronically ill patients, regardless of what changes it means. This is widely different from the cultural assumptions made in present literature, where caregivers seem entitled to “having a life” and respected for what they are doing. However, even Indian caregivers find their role difficult and even they perceive stress related to it.

Most literature focuses on caregiving as burden, edifying the negative outcomes. Cox and Monk (1993) informed in their study that 29 percent of caregivers reported that their health had deteriorated as a result of caregiving. According to the study by Juster and Marin (2011), the

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intensity of chronic caregiving is allied to a number of health issues. The caregiving experience places a cumulative toll on the body and psychological strains the caregiving person.

The literature on caregiving fundamentally endorses negative impact of caregiving on the mental health of the caregiver. The study on caregivers of Parkinson's disease by Reilly, Finnan, Allwright, et al (1996) shows that overall, carer spouses have slightly worse social, psychological and physical profiles and increasing care provision is associated with fewer contacts, outings and holidays.

Family caregiving is also associated with increased levels of depression and anxiety as well as higher use of psychoactive medications, poorer self-reported physical health, compromised immune function, and increased mortality (Kiecolt-Glaser & Glaser, 2001; Light & Martin, 1996; Schulz, O'Brien, Bookwala, & Fleissner, 1995; Schulz & Beach, 1999). Sahoo, Brahma and Mohapatra (2010) found in their study that stress burden has been found significantly high in the caregivers of both, patients of mental illness and diabetic patients. But it is higher in case of caregivers of mental illness.

Caregiving not only has an impact on physical illness but also mental illness of individual, although the kind and amount of impact may vary in both. The majority of caregivers experience significant deterioration in their mental health (Barer & Johnson, 1990). The survey by Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), 1998 found that approximately 30% of caregivers reported that their well-being had been affected by caregiving, and that they were often worried or depressed. Caregiver burden, depression and life satisfaction have been identified as discrete aspects of caregiver's well-being by O'Rourke & Tuokko (2003). A comprehensive meta-analysis of mental and physical health effects of caregiving by Pinquart & Sorensen (2003) found significantly higher rates of depression and stress in caregivers compared with non-caregivers. Cummins and Hughes (2007) also found in their study that wellbeing decreases linearly as the number of hours spent caring increases and caregivers are more likely to be experiencing chronic pain. They also established that primary caregivers are at considerable risk of high stress, clinical depression, and abnormally low subjective quality of life. Schulz & Sherwood (2008) also established that the detrimental physical effects of caregiving are generally less intensive than the psychological effects.

Caregiving and Physical Health

The caregiving studies reveal that a caregiver's physical health is at loss because of the constant burden that they face. Burton et al. (2003) found evidence of impaired health behaviors, such as neglecting their own health care appointments and eating a poor-quality diet, among caregivers who provide assistance with basic activities of daily living (ADLs) like toileting and eating. A national Survey Study By Evercare (2006) revealed that fifteen percent of the caregivers say their health has gotten a lot worse because of providing care, and four in ten say it has gotten

moderately worse (44%). The remaining 41% say their health is a little worse as a result of their caregiving. The survey also indicated that the most common aspects of their health that have worsened as a result of caregiving are: energy and sleep (87%), stress and/or panic attacks (70%), pain (60%), depression (52%), headaches (41%), and weight gain or loss (38%).

Caregiving as an Obligation

The effect of caregiving is personally felt by the caregivers themselves but still they consider it as a part of their responsibility. Sherrelet.al. (2001) establish that caregiving can be a rewarding and positive experience. Findings of Lopez, et.al. (2005) support satisfaction in caregiving. Robison, Fortinsky, Kleppinger, Shugrue and Porter (2009) found that caregivers rate their health better than non-caregivers and do not report more depressive symptoms or social isolation, although living with the care receiver, inadequate income, and care receivers' unmet need for community-based long-term care services relate to multiple negative outcomes.

Arbitrators of Caregiving

The personal characteristics and nature of caregiver also plays a role in determining the impact caregiving has on the caregiver. Wright, et.al. (1993) found that caregiver's sex, ethnicity, education level, self-related health and relationship to the care receiver have been associated with the psychological well-being of the caregivers. Grotberg (2004) examined the needs of fathers as caregivers, the stress of caregiving, and adolescents with special needs. He concluded that the role of resilience is a critical element of managing the problems inbuilt in having a family member with special needs. Older caregivers, people of low socioeconomic status, and those with limited support networks report poorer psychological and physical health than caregivers who are younger and have more economic and interpersonal resources (Pinquart, 2001; Schulz et al., 1995; Vitaliano et al., 2003). Clark (2002) has provided strong data on the effects of individual and family hardiness on caregiver depression and fatigue. In her study, she found that the more hardy the caregiver the less depression and fatigue marked in them.

The Role of Psychological Resources

Direct effects of social and psychological resources on caregiver's experiences were found to be fewer to none in the study of Nijboer (2000). In his study, it was also found that caregivers with a low level of daily emotional support, with a low score on mastery, and with negative perception of caregiving could be identified to develop more depression over time. A study by Glaser et.al. (1991) revealed that caregivers experienced significantly more prolonged illness from infectious disease, primarily upper respiratory tract infections, and they visited physicians often. The data on social support indicated that caregivers had fewer people in their networks as well as less frequent contacts with network members. Also the study revealed that caregivers showed higher levels of depressive symptoms. Cohen and colleagues (2002) present in their study that positive feelings about caregiving were associated with lower depression symptom

scores, lower perceived burden of being a caregiver, and better self-assessed health. Few studies present that the psychological resources, such as resilience, hardiness, optimism, hope and self-efficacy, mediate the resulting effect of caregiving on the caregiver.

Being a Resilient Caregiver

Resilience has been found as predictor of mental health in caregivers in the study of Clark and Hartman (1996). Findings of study of Fraser & Pakenham (2009) suggest that some resilience factors have a differential impact on adjustment and caregiving, and support the focus of interventions on modifying resilience factors. Though studies also suggest that psychological resilience constructs don't contribute to the prediction of life satisfaction (Kupferschmidt, 2009). Scott (2010) established in his study that as resilience increased, caregiver burden decreased. Cassidy, Giles & McLaughlin (2013) identified resilience and benefit finding as accounting for significant amounts of variance in positive health and mediating the impact of caregiving in young caregivers, where benefit finding seems to be related to social recognition of the caregiving role and to family support.

Hope in Caregiving

Hope is also found to be a component of caregiving by Boland and Sims (1996). In their study, the caregivers described home as being healing and a source of hope where the patients could improve, if not physical, at least mentally. Hope for family caregivers of chronically ill population emerged as four interconnecting themes: engaging, strengthening, and maintaining connections; easing of self; finding meaning in the situation; and acceptance (Revier, Meiers & Herth, 2012). Hope is an important determinant of caregiver burden; findings of study by Utne, Miaskowski, Paul & Rustoen (2013) suggests that family caregivers with lower levels of hope represent a high-risk group for higher levels of caregiver burden. The study by Duggleby, Williams, et.al. (2014) formulated that participants with higher hope scores had higher mental health scores, lower perceptions of loss and grief scores, and higher scores in their confidence in their ability to deal with difficult situations (self-efficacy).

Role of Optimism in Caregiving

Optimism is also found to arbitrate the effect of caregiving on caregivers. Shifren & Hooker (1995) studied the stability of optimism in caregivers and concluded that the caregivers showed variability in optimism over time, and their state optimism could be differentiated from their affect. Fotiadou, Barlow, Powell & Langton (2007) established in their study that parents of children with cancer had higher levels of anxiety and depression, together with greater levels of optimism, satisfaction with life and subjective health perception. Also, optimism was significantly correlated with satisfaction with life, subjective health perception, anxiety and depression. Optimism was found to be related to better mental and

physical health, also dispositional optimism played a significant role as a psychological resource in the study conducted by Greenberg, Seltzer, Krauss, Chou & Hong (2010).

The 'Dharma' of Indian Caregivers

Mostly excerpts of caregiving literature is drawn from western literature. Among Asians and Asian Indians in the United States, caregiving is a product of cultural expectations, duty, love, and a positive attitude towards aging in general (Bhagat & Unisa, 2006; Gupta, 2000). Banerjee and Dixit (2012) maintain that the family caregivers in India accept their role as caregivers and consider their work as part of their lives or 'dharma' (the social responsibilities towards others, which are mandatory). Research on Indian caregivers is diminutive and even those that exist talk of caregivers of mentally ill and do not focus on the reciprocity aspect that exists in Indian caregiving. Reciprocity is described as giving back to parents or other family members during one's lifetime. It is viewed as an obligation to provide for those who provided for you. Reciprocity is taught to children both implicitly and explicitly. "Being there" and "unconditional regard" were two concepts also related to reciprocity (Clark & Huttlinger, 1998). Lack of reciprocity in caring may lead to the gradual detachment in relationship between patients and their caregivers (Banerjee & Dixit, 2012). Thus, together with reciprocity, the relationship quality also plays a major role in deciding the outcome of caregiving (Gupta, 2009). Gupta, Pillai & Levy (2012) also found that role overload and role conflict influence caregiver burden indirectly, where role conflict is associated with lower quality of relationship between a caregiver and the elderly care recipient. Also, religious beliefs and practices and positive appraisal of the caregiver role in terms of "value" emerged as the most frequently cited intrapersonal sources of strengths in caregivers of cancer (Mehrotra & Sukumar, 2007). The participants also described several interpersonal sources of strengths, e.g., family, medical fraternity, and care recipients themselves. Indian caregivers of patients with schizophrenia enjoy positive aspects of caregiving while taking care of their ill relatives. In these caregivers, the positive aspects of caregiving were associated with better quality of life (Kate, Grover, Kulhara & Nehra, 2013). Although certain positive outcomes stick to caregiving in India, still evidences talk of some sort of existing burden. In a study by Shaji, Smitha, Lal & Prince (2002) on dementia' caregivers, the majority of caregivers experienced significant deterioration in their mental health and one caregiver unfortunately committed suicide after the death of her husband. Nevertheless, studies also show that coping strategies of denial and problem solving, strength of religious belief and perceived burden were significant predictors of wellbeing of caregivers (Rammohan, Rao & Subbakrishna, 2008). Also, evidences show that caregivers learn to adjust to the behaviour patterns and changes in the patients over the years, perhaps becoming more resilient individuals as a result of habituation (Jain and Singh, 2014).

CONCLUSION

Caregiving not only has an impact on physical illness but also mental illness of individual, although the kind and amount of impact may vary in both. The majority of caregivers experience

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significant deterioration in their mental health (Barer & Johnson, 1990). The survey by Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), 1998 found that approximately 30% of caregivers reported that their well-being had been affected by caregiving, and that they were often worried or depressed. Caregiver burden, depression and life satisfaction have been identified as discrete aspects of caregiver's well-being by O'Rourke & Tuokko (2003). A comprehensive meta-analysis of mental and physical health effects of caregiving by Pinquart & Sorensen (2003) found significantly higher rates of depression and stress in caregivers compared with non-caregivers. Cummins and Hughes (2007) also found in their study that wellbeing decreases linearly as the number of hours spent caring increases and caregivers are more likely to be experiencing chronic pain. They also established that primary caregivers are at considerable risk of high stress, clinical depression, and abnormally low subjective quality of life. Schulz & Sherwood (2008) also established that the detrimental physical effects of caregiving are generally less intensive than the psychological effects.

Most of the literature views caregiving as a burden, focusing more on its negative aspects. We know more about the emotional distress and behavioral disruption in caregivers than we know how to avoid such distress and disruption. By gaining knowledge about the positive aspects of caregiving, we could try to design effective programs, services, and interventions to enhance family member functioning and long-term adjustment.

Not only fewer evidences exist on positive outcomes of caregiving, but also only scarce amount of literature is available related to caregivers of chronically ill patients, most of the studies focus on people who care for the mentally ill. Family caregivers of cancer patients communicated unmet needs for social, volunteer, and professional support as their own physical and emotional health suffered (Weitzner, Haley & Chen, 2000). Molloy, Johnston, et.al. (2010) in their study on informal caregivers of heart failure patients also found that the demand-control model of job strain predicts caregiver burden and caregiver satisfaction in the informal caregivers of heart failure patients.

Most caregiver research focuses on how to avoid negative outcomes (physical and psychological), not on how to create positive experiences (Coons, 2012). Also, Indian view of caregiving as sum of 'Dharma' (responsibility), values and reciprocity is missing in literature. The present piece of work attempts to fill this knowledge gap by capturing different shades of caregiving experiences of family members who were engaged in caregiving for their chronically ill family members or relatives. Maximum studies of caregiving indulge in caregivers of mentally ill. This study intends to apprehend how family caregivers in chronic illness perspective create implication of their caring role in the Indian setup.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Young Adults and Aggression: A Comparative Study of Gender Differences

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ABSTRACT

Aggression or anger is an emotion felt by almost all of us in daily life. But in young adult age especially in student's life this emotion can be very harmful if not managed properly. The current study investigates the level and gender differences in aggression by involving 100 participants (N = 100, 50 Males & 50 Females) from Lovely Professional University, Punjab. The age of the participants range from 18 to 25 (Mean = 22.44) years. The Aggression Scale has been used over a period of two months to collect data from both the genders. The results of the study present some interesting figures suggesting that female participants experience high aggression (30%) in comparison to male participants (22%). The results also suggest that overall 26% participants experience high aggression indicating that one fourth of the participants are on the higher side of aggression. Further, the results also indicate that though the percentage of female participants is high on aggression, but they do not differ significantly ($t = -.568$, $p > .05$) to their male counterparts on aggression. The results also differ from the general notion that males are aggressive than females. The results suggest that currently the pattern of aggression is changing and, in modern times, both males and females experience almost equal aggression.

Keywords: *Aggression, Young Adults, Gender Differences*

The term aggression is a used frequently to describe the behavioral activities of others as well as ourselves. In psychology, the concept of aggression is referred to a variety of behavior which results in emotional as well as physical harm to an individual. Social psychologists explain aggression as an action that is planned to harm those people who do not want to be harmed (Baron & Richardson 1994).

Aggression is also manifested in different ways as physical, verbal, relational, cyber bullying and accidental aggression. Physical aggression mainly include hitting, beating, kicking or use

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weapons etc or causing damage to household or other positions Buss (1961). Most people display highest levels of physical aggression in childhood and this behavior declines with the age with proper care and concentration. Physical aggression also leads to drug addiction, crimes, accidents, suicidal activities, depression, abuse by spouse and neglect parenting. Verbal aggression is thought to be mainly a destructive form of communication with intent to disturb others. Relational Aggression is also known as covert or indirect aggression (Crick & Grotpeter, 1995) It is a type of aggression in which we intentionally damaging someone's social status or relationship which can occur between different age groups, in family matters, in professional life or among the people of society. It sometimes also refers to hurting someone's reputation or relationship. Cyber bullying is an action of harming or harassing peoples via information technology, electronic devices, mass media or social network in a repeated or deliberated manner. Cyber bullying can be done to a person to incarnate hatred in other mind toward a particular person or a group or it can be used as a tool to surely humiliating some' one with the increased use of technology. Cyber bullying has become common in teenagers. Accidental aggression is a type of aggression in which a person hurts the other individual unintentionally for example unknowingly stepping on another's foot while playing a game putting on the coat sleeves unknowing hitting on someone with our arm. Accidental aggression does not happen purposely but it happens unknowingly.

A wide spectrum of factors has been associated with the development and persistence of aggressive behavior among young adults including males and females. Understanding the relationship among these factors and youth aggression provides important insights for developing prevention interventions. There is little amount of work on aggression among youth in India. Considering this backdrop and research gap, we propose the present study to find out the level and gender difference in aggression among young adults on Indian sample.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Around 1950s, a number of pioneering researches were done on aggression especially focusing on adolescents, young men, adults and women. These studies suggested that males, particularly young male adults, are more aggressive than their female counterparts. But the concept of aggression has changed especially in gender view. The change is set that an increase in the number of criminal act and antisocial acts are committed by young girls. There is statistical proof that gender differences are more sufficient in the stage of adolescence than any other stage (Estevez et al., 2012). Awareness of the gender stereotypes increases during growth and development of the person. During the childhood gender stereotype are stiff but imprecise as, they enter adolescence boys and girls develop the new cognitive skills and they become more aware of the plurality of approaches to gender roles. Adolescents are able to achieve greater objectivity from external perceptions to generate more autonomous, propositional thinking, critical, and to relativism more widely the traits assigned by society to men and women. Eagly and Steffen (1986) indicated that even if men were to some extent more aggressive as compare to

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women on different parameters but gender differences were sufficiently linked to various attributes of the studies. Especially, men were more indulge in those aggressive activities that direct toward injury or pain rather than create social or psychological damage. They further emphasized that in aggression the sex differences are mainly outcome of perceived consequences in aggression which are studied as social aspects as well as roles of gender. Bjorkqvist et al. (1994) compared physical and direct verbal aggression in males and females. The subjects were university employees including (162 males and 172 females) the tool was harassment measuring scale by Bjorkqvist et al. which was given in (1994) and in this tool the more emphasis was given to two subscales named social manipulation and rational appearing aggression. The result revealed that the males were high on physical aggression in comparison to females, whereas females were high on direct verbal aggression from males.

Smritikana Mitra Ghosh (2012) conducted a comparative study on aggression between girls and boys. This study consists of 100 adolescents 50 boys and 50 girls of age 14 to 16 years. The outcome revealed that there was no significant difference between girls and boys on aggression. Barbara Krahe et al. (2005) conducted a study to examine the sex difference in relationship aggression among young adults and this study consisted of 248 women and 400 men between the aged of 17 to 29 years. The results concluded that women scored higher in aggression acts than men.

Kenneth E. Leonard (2002) conducted a study to estimate the prevalence location and severity of aggression in one year among the community and college young adults. Their results indicated that 25% of women and 33% of men experienced aggression. Jamal Akhtar et al. (2015) conducted a study to compare the gender difference in aggressive behavior in adolescence. The sample consists of two hundred teenagers of which 100 were boys and 100 were girls. The results revealed that the boys are higher in aggression as compared to girls. Edalati et al. (2010) concluded that according to existing literature the female physical aggression is almost equal to or higher than males but not less than males. Bettencourt and Miller (1996) conducted a study to find out the consequences or effect of provocation in aggression among gender differences. The study reveals that the men who are unprovoked are more aggressive as compare to women. Gender differences in terms of appraisals, the intensity of provocation or threat by retaliation to some extent mediates the reduced effect of provocation but, they do not show the entire details of its manipulated effect. Furthermore, the study revealed that the magnitude and as well as the intensity in aggression of gender differences are also affected by the type of provocation and other variables. Fares et al. (2011) conducted a study on children and adolescents to examine the justification of aggressive acts in various social situations as a function of age, sex, and the effect of differences in socioeconomic status. The data was collected from participants aged 8 to 21 by using self-report questionnaire, to measure the aggressive acts in six social situations. The results indicated that the level of aggression justified by physical and verbal aggression was more in adolescents than children in many situations. The results also showed that boys justified physical

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aggression more easily than girls. Veiskarami et al. (2015) conducted a study among males and females who are victims of physical aggression. Four schools from Iran were selected for the study. The data was collected by using Bullying victimization scale (BVS) and the results indicated that boys average score was higher than girls. Fries et al. (2013) conducted a study Gender segregations in analyzing of Self-Reported Physical violence within Adolescents from Santiago, Chile within a community sample of youngsters (ages groups 11 - 17). The sample consisted of men and women and the results discovered that teenager women reported engaged more in physical hostility than men. The subjects established that higher levels of aggression was reported with—younger age, fewer family participation, fewer parental power, less positive dealings with caregivers, having more friends who act out and use substances, having fewer friends dedicated to learning, company of date cruelty, and more experienced to locality crime. They also concluded that there was need for repercussion for avoidance and involvement efforts to tackle high-risk adolescents and reduce hostility amid Chilean youth. Crick and Grotpeter (1995) conducted a study on Relational Aggression, Social psychological adjustment and Gender. In this study, a form of violence hypothesized to be typical of girls, relational aggression was calculated to the sample of 491 third during sixth-grade children. Physical and verbal violence and social psychological adjustment were also calculated.. Results indicated that the girls were significantly more relationally aggressive than boys. Their findings also showed that relationally violent children may be at risk for severe adjustment difficulties and have much higher levels of depression, loneliness, and isolation than their none relationally destructive peers. Hay (2007) conducted a study on sex differences in aggression. In the observational studies and other studies that are recently conducted, it is revealed that during infancy there is a similar rate among boys and girls of using force. Boys are supposed to become significantly more aggressive over the next few years. Moreover, the evaluation for alternative hypothesis accounting for the widening of gap between the genders has been done which includes the hypothesis about normative patterns of desistence of female and escalation of male; preference given by boys for active play in order to promote aggression tendency of girls to hide their aggression; use of other alternate ways of aggression by girls increased risk among boys that are linked to aggression which may be the risk for cognitive as well as emotional problems; sensitivity of boys towards situational triggers of aggression; and also the vulnerable approach towards the adverse rearing environments. Thus, there are mixed evidences on each hypothesis. Basically, the general differences among the sexes happen to be produced by a less number of boys who show high rate of aggression deployment. Parker et al. (2005) conducted a study on young adolescents to find out the differences in individuals links to self esteem, aggression, and social adjustment. In first study, it involved 94 adolescents who investigated on their friendship jealousy on a newly created measure and they suggested that girls and adolescents with small self-worth observed the greatest friendship jealousy. In the second study 399 young youth were involved and extended the size of self-report jealousy to a broader age range and the results integrated that the self and peer reported jealousy were solitary modestly associated and had different correlates. The structural modeling exposed that young adolescent's status for

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friendship jealousy was connected to behaving aggressively and to broader peer modification difficulties. Both the self and peer observed that jealousy contributed to loneliness. Bailey and Ostrov (2008) conducted a study on aggression in emerging adults. The outcome showed that immediate physical aggression was uniquely connected with hostile acknowledgment biases for instrumental frustration conditions while the reactive relational violence was individually connected with hostile attribution biases for relational provocation scenarios. Their conclusion also showed that there was link between self-reported subtypes of normative beliefs and aggressive behavior. Onukwufor (2013) conducted a study on verbal and physical aggression among adolescents. This study shows significant difference between females and males in respect to physical aggression, suggesting males on higher side.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

100 students (N = 100, 50 Males and 50 Females) aging from 19-25 years have been selected randomly from Lovely Professional University (LPU) as a sample in the current study. The mean age of females is 21.72 years and for males 23.16 years.

Research Tool

Aggression scale: Aggression Scale is developed by Dr. G.P Mathur and Dr Raj Kumari Bhatnagar in 2004. Aggression scale is used to study the level of aggression in any age group (above 14 years). Aggression scale consists of 55 statements. Each statement describes different forms of individual's aggression in different situations. In this scale statements are in two forms i.e. positive and negative. It is a 5 point scale. In this scale the statement are in two forms i.e. positive and negative. 30 statements are in positive forms and 25 in negative form. In positive form of statement, the scores will be given as 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 and in negative form as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, respectively. The total score will be calculated by adding all the scores of individual items.

Procedure

First step for this research is to select the subject randomly aging from 19 to 25 inside the LPU campus. After selecting the subject the participate were informed everything about the aggression scale. This scale consists of 55 questions it is a 5 point scale. There is no write and wrong response to the statement. No time limit is fixed for the test but usually an individual takes 25 to 30 minutes to complete this test. But it is compulsory to respond to each question. Finally, the data was computed on suitable statistics including descriptive statistics and t test for independent means through SPSS.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The current study has been performed to investigate the level of aggression and gender differences in aggression among young adults. The results are presented in figure 1, 2 and 3 for males, females and in terms of overall percentage of aggression, respectively. If we carefully analyze the figure 1 and 2, we find that males and females are equal in terms of low aggression as both groups represent 4% aggression in low category. But, when the high aggression is

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compared, female participants are slightly high and about 30% female participants show high aggression whereas for male participants the number is 22%. Here we can say that female participants are at 8% hike on high aggression in comparison to males. The findings are quite surprising as males are generally considered high on aggression than females. The results also show a contrast to the findings of Kenneth E. Leonard (2002) who suggested that 25% of women and 33% of men experience aggression. We can say that it is rather opposite in the current study where 30% female and 22% male experience high aggression. As the current study is done after 14 years of Kenneth E. Leonard's study, it suggests a changing pattern of aggression in gender perspective.

Figure 1: Percentage of Aggression in Males

■ Low Aggression ■ Average Aggression ■ High Aggression

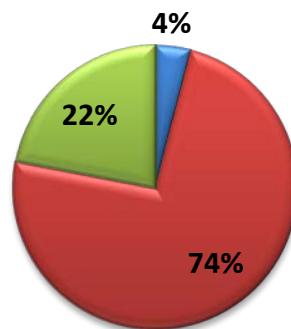
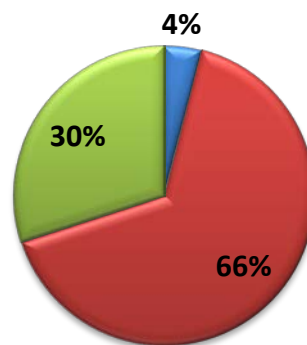
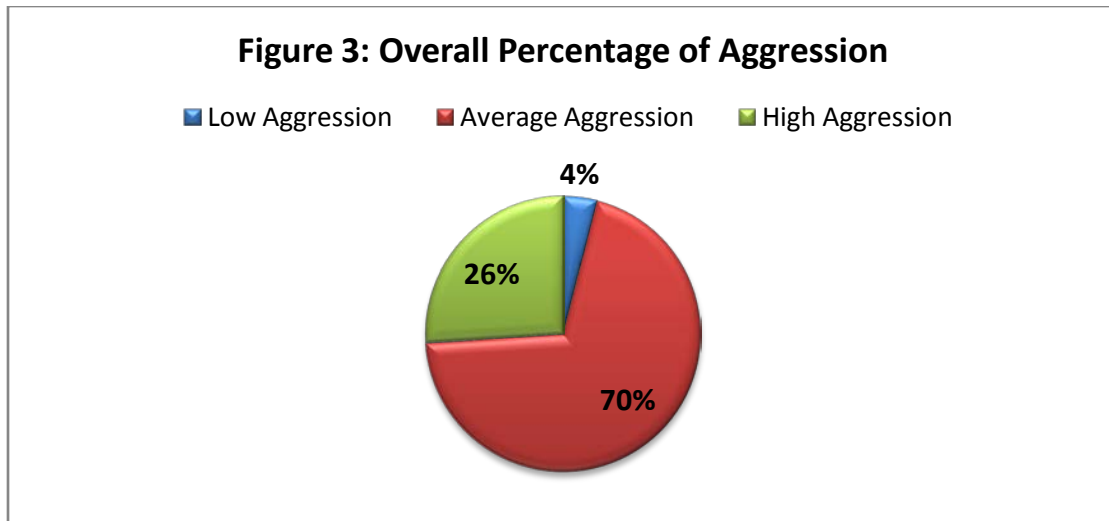


Figure 2: Percentage of Aggression in Females

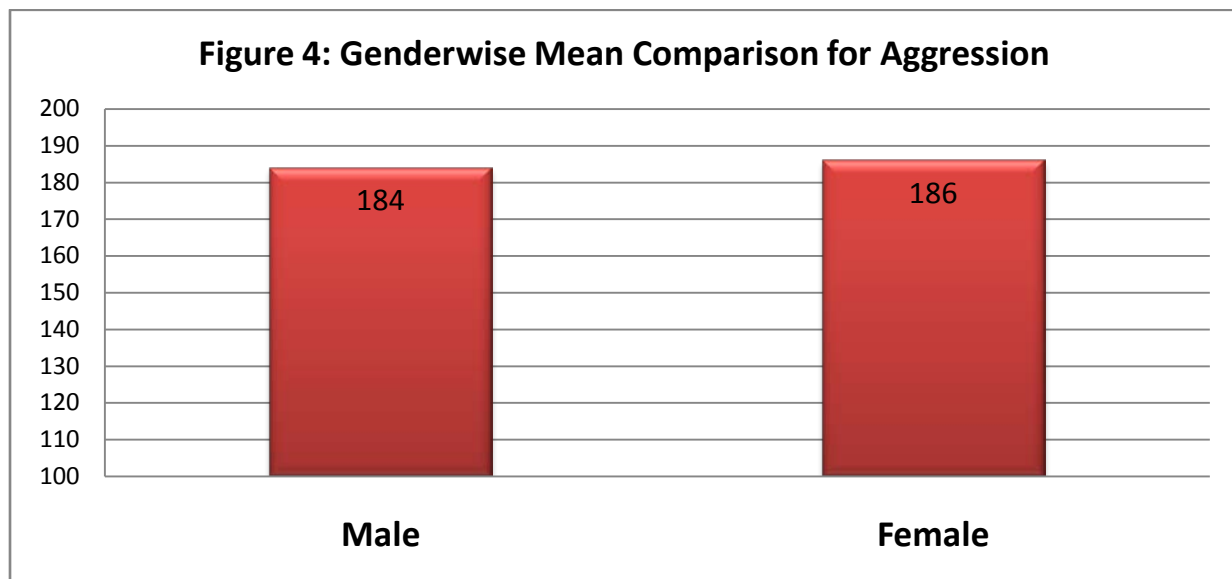
■ Low Aggression ■ Average Aggression ■ High Aggression



The results also reveal that overall 26% participants experience high aggression in young adults. This result also suggest that one fourth young adult population fall in the category of high aggression. Figure 3 represents this information graphically.



The gender differences in aggression have been calculated by applying independent samples t test (as the data include only two groups) and results are presented in table 1.1. The mean comparison for both the groups is also presented in figure 4 for a visual representation.



By looking at figure 5, it seems that there no gender difference in aggression. Moreover, when we refer the t ratio for the gender difference ($t = -0.568$, $p > .05$) in table 1.1, we find that the t value is far below from the critical value of probability at .05 level. This also indicates that there is no significant gender difference in aggression. Thus, the results of the current study do not accept the alternate hypothesis that suggests a significant gender difference in aggression. The current results are supported by the findings of Edalati et al. (2010) who suggested that female physical aggression is almost equal to or higher than males but not less than males. The present results are also supported by Smritikana Mitra Ghosh (2012) who did not find any significant difference in aggression between girls and boys in his study. Crick and Grotpeter (1995), Barbara Krahe et al. (2005), Vives and Colet (2010) and Fries et al. (2013) also indicated that females

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were significantly more relationally aggressive or hostile than males. However, we did not find females as significantly higher than males on aggression, but results suggest both are equal on aggression.

Table 1.1: Means, SDs and t ratio for the gender differences in aggression (Independent Samples)

N = 100, df = 98	Gender	Mean	SD	t value	p value
Aggression	Male	184.26	20.66	-0.568	0.572 (NS)
	Female	186.82	24.29		
NS: Not significant					

Further, there is a big volume of studies which contrast with the current findings. For example Veiskarami et al. (2015) found in their study that boys average score on aggression was higher than girls. Bettencourt and Miller (1996) also found out a contrast to the current study suggesting that the men who are unprovoked are more aggressive as compare to women. Similarly, the study by Jamal Akhtar et al. (2015) does not support the current research findings revealing that the girls are relatively less aggressive as compared to boys.

CONCLUSION

In nutshell, we can say that there is no consensus over gender differences on aggression but researches are scattered in view of suggesting males as high, equal or low to females on aggression. However, most of the current researches suggest that there is no significant gender difference on aggression. The current research also supports the view and indicates that both males and females are equal on experiencing aggression. Though, the present research uses a small sample, which becomes its limitation, yet it gives new insights to future researchers interested to conduct researches in areas related to aggression.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Effect of Home Environment upon Inferiority among School Going Students

Dr. Latika Varma^{1*}

ABSTRACT

A study conducted by Ministry of Home Affairs New Delhi. "Crime in India", 1958 to 1964, it was found that most of the criminals came from broken homes where no code of discipline existed lack of interpersonal harmony and consistency leads to a viscous home atmosphere. The different hypothesis which was made for this study has been confirmed on the basis of the obtained data and statistical treatment. The proposal passed by UNO in chapter 27, that every child in the world has the right to live and it is the parents responsibility to provide a congenial and harmonious home environment for the child, so that he can get various opportunities and motivation to develop skills, confidence and over all perfect personality.

Keywords: *Home Environment, Inferiority, School Students*

As we all know that 29th Nov. 1989 was the day when UNO passed certain proposals for human rights. But they have given more emphasis on child welfare and child rights. In paragraph 27, it is clearly written that all children should be looked after properly by their parents for the proper mental, physical, academic, moral and social development. The child should get proper life-style to develop these qualities. He should get proper conditions & environment at home, so that he develops his abilities and potentialities. At home, children should get financial aid and, the basic necessities of life.

Hence, the purpose of the present study is related to this aspect of child right in which effect of home environment upon inferiority is studied.

The social scientists have become more environmentally conscious. Their purpose is to study the relation between human behavior and physical environment. They want to know how a man perceives, acts and adapts to his physical, geographical and social environment. How he is

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affected by the noise, temperature, slum dwellings which surround his home, the attitude of parents the group affiliation and the cultural norms.

Human beings are usually capable of passing from one environment to another, as well as of changing the conditions of a given environment to suit their own purpose. The environment is not simply the outside world though as something that surrounds us. Environment is present from the very formation of life. Environment is not one, but infinitely various. Every difference in our environment means difference in our habits, our ways of living.

There are two types of environment .The outer and the inner environment. The outer environment consists of the physical modification houses and cities etc. The inner environment is society endures.

The present study is designed to examine and explore the impact of social stratification of Home environment on the emotional aspect of personality. i.e., feeling of inferiority with' the following conceptualization:

(A) The Home Environment: - The environment exists in its complex totality, it is not the world about us but rather the world, with all its aspects, as it comes into relation to our lives. The more complex the life, the more complex will be the environment, and the more complex the adjustment to the total environment.

As we know family is the most important primary group in society. The home is the place providing an enduring accommodation to the family, within geographical, physical and social boundary. It may include collateral or subsidiary relationships, but it is constituted by the living together of mates.

The family has certain distinctive features such as universality, limited size, nuclear position, permanent value.

The home environment relates to the operational roles of the family which is reflected through certain functions.

(1) Environmental Attachment:- Members of the family are attached with each other on impulses of basic nature. Right from maternal devotion and parental care the husband wife relationship is based on most intimate bond. The members of the family have cooperative and affectionate interdependent relationship.

(2) Responsibility Shared:- The members of the family have so much sense of responsibility that they toil for their families all their lives. They undertake heaviest responsibilities.

(3) Social Regulation:- The members are guarded by certain regulations imposed from the society the effect of home environment is reflected in socialization of the child. When the child

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is socialized in a happy, affectionate family, he usually develops a secure, well adjusted personality. When the family life is unsatisfactory, the children often develop personality difficulties and behavior deviants.

A study conducted by Ministry of Home Affairs New Delhi. "Crime in India", 1958 to 1964, it was found that most of the criminals came from broken homes where no code of discipline existed lack of interpersonal harmony and consistency leads to a viscous home atmosphere. No two children will omit the same behavior. They may be of same age group with underlying identical psychological process that are common, yet they will exhibit variation in their behavioral aspects. The variation is due to their changed environment.

Family is the functional component of home and the first social institution of the child is his home. The home environment has its manifestations in the child's behaviour. Proper adaptability and adjustment is the outcome of a proper home environment. It is the home environment which provides typical system of life of the child. Family is the important component of home environment and the parents exercise a most dominant role in the home.

(B) The feeling of Inferiority: Feeling of deprivation, lowness is interiority. It is a conditional anything in the individual that is below the average that provides unfavorable comment or gives him a feeling of impotency, social and interpersonal deprivations is inferiority.

Development of such feeling, i.e. inferiority is usually accompanied by certain reactive factors. These reactions are of various kinds and from the indicative signs of existence of inferiority feelings. Feelings of shame, guilty, rejections, insulation, tension etc perception of word and life as dangerous, human beings as bad, leading to actions like putting up grievance, looking pathetic, begging, pleading, weeping, accepting; favours unhesitatingly do, serve as the sign of presence of feeling of inferiority (Maslow 1945).

Few factors play a major role in the development of feeling of inferiority. Physical Deprivation can act as predisposing or precipitating cause of inferiority feeling.

Malnourished children suffer from lowered mental & physical capacity which further leads to serious deficits as feeling of inferiority. Brain pathology is also an important factor of development of feeling of inferiority. Organic brain disorders leads to mental incapacity hence development of feeling of inferiority is seen.

As these biological cause is responsible for development of inferiority, and also psychosocial factors are equally responsible for that. Psychological and interpersonal factors play a significant role in development of inferiority such as Maternal deprivation, Pathogenic family Patterns, Early psychic Trauma, Disordered interpersonal relationships and key stresses of modern life.

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Institutionalization

In school as compared with an ordinary home, there is likely to be less warmth and physical contact, hence less intellectual, emotional and social stimulation and lack of encouragement is found which again leads to development of inferiority in school going children.

Pathogenic Family Patterns includes parent, child relationships and family interactions. If there is any traumatic experience for the child, it develops inferiority; over protection and under protection is also a common cause of Inferiority.

Hypothesis

Home environment plays a vital role in the personality development of children. The better the home environment will be, the lesser feeling of inferiority is found in children.

METHOD OF THE STUDY

Sample:

Sample consisted of 50 students of local schools. Their age-range was from 5-14 yrs.

Instruments:

Home Environment Scale:- (Sinha 1985)

Taking home environment under its complexity some important dimensions has been taken which affect the child favorably or unfavorably as the case may be.

The five Dimensions of Home-Environment

- (1) Parental Love and care (PLC)
- (2) Family Encouragement and Discouragement (FED)
- (3) Identification with family problems (IFP)
- (4) Father-mother relationship (FMR)
- (5) Family harmony and Discipline (FHD)

The scale has been constructed on Likert pattern consisting of 25 items. The respondents are asked to indicate the applicability of each item on 5 category of answers ranging from “Very much-Tolerable can’t say, very little-Not at all”

Items were selected in such manner that each dimension of Home environment was represented by 5 items. Thus the items selected were as follows:-

Dimensions	Items
PLC	1, 6, 11, 16, 21
FED	2, 7, 12, 18, 22
IFP	3, 8, 13, 17, 23
FMR	4, 10, 14, 20, 24
FHD	5, 9, 15, 19, 25

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Out of 25 items, 13 were positive statements and 12 were negative ones.

The Reliability: The measures of reliability were applied for measuring the consistency coefficient of home-environment scale.

The split- half and test – retest reliability index obtained are as follows:

- (1) Split half reliability $N = 128$ $r = .913$
- (2) Test- Retest Reliability $N = 74$ $r = .642$

The Validity: The validity of the scale has been used on the rational or adjustment index of the subjects. It was assumed that one who will manifest better adjustment will certainly experience a healthy home-environment, on the contrary that better adjustment is the index of better home environment.

The Inferiority Scale

The questionnaire consists of 20 questions depending upon the result of pilot study and opinion of several psychologists, 20 items were finally selected out of 30 items originally framed. The question elicits either ‘Yes or No’ answers.

Reliability:- The test-retest reliability was used for measuring consistency coefficients of inferiority Questionnaire.

Validity:- Self rating by the subjects were obtained on a six point scale as the criterion of determining validity.

ADMINISTRATION AND SCORING

A questionnaire with full instructions were given and subjects were asked to work their answers in Yes or No. Each answer had been given weight age score for each positive & Negative answer. The maximum score obtained was hundred.

Scores below 26-Noor low feeling or inferiority between 27- 43 – Mild inferiority feeling between 44-60-Moderate inferiority feeling 61 and Above-Severe inferiority feeling.

Table – 1, Mean, S.D. and Coefficient of Correlation

	N	M	S.D.	Correlation
Home Environment	50	75.5	6.06	.07
Inferiority	50	37.79	13.75	17.93
	P>.05			
	P<.05			

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Table – 2, Mean, S.D. and t of income scores

SES	N	M	S.D.	t	P
Upper	18	76.39	11.37	1.07	N.S.
Middle	18	79.89	7.89		
Upper	18	76.39	11.37	1.54	N.S.
Lower	14	69.79	12.48		
Middle	18	79.89	7.89	1.54	N.S.
Lower	14	69.79	12.49		

Table -3, Sex and Home Environment

SEX	N	M	S.D.	t	P
Male	28	72.67	12.09	1.83	N.S.
Female	22	79.32	13.27		

Table -4, Sex and Home Environment

Living	N	M	S.D.	t	P
Urban	25	79.72	10.91	2.52	.05
Rural	25	71.88	11.12		

Table -5, Sex and Inferiority

SEX	N	M	S.D.	t	P
Male	28	38.74	12.09	0.53	N.S.
Female	22	36.25	19.00		

Table -6, Native Place and Inferiority

Living	N	M	S.D.	t	P
Urban	25	38.65	13.53	0.51	N.S.
Rural	25	36.33	18.47		

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Table – 7, SES and Inferiority

SES	N	M	S.D.	t	P
Upper	18	36.88	10.75	.02	N.S.
Female	18	36.80	13.18		
Upper	18	36.88	10.75	.58	N.S.
Lower	14	40.13	18.68		
Middle	18	36.80	13.18	.57	N.S.
Lower	14	40.13	18.68		

DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

By the statistical treatment done on the basis of data obtained, it is seen that the social stratifications of Home environment sometimes give rise to such a situation which is highly conducive to the emotional expression of inferiority.

Further, home environment is so much elaborate and extensive in the sense that it contains several divisions and dimensions within its domain such as father-mother relationship, parental affection and treatment with their child, their encouragement, discouragement, influences, identification, harmony, discipline etc. All these situations play important role so far as personality development of a child is concerned. No doubt, sometimes, some of these situations pose a threat before the child or adolescent: creating emotional disequilibrium like feeling of inferiority, insecurity etc. It is perhaps due to this that psychologists like Mischel, Allport, Mc. Clelland, Lewin etc. have stressed that behaviour is multiplicative function (i.e. interaction) of personality and environment.

The different hypothesis which was made for this study has been confirmed on the basis of the obtained data and statistical treatment. The proposal passed by UNO in chapter 27, that every child in the world has the right to live and it is the parents responsibility to provide a congenial and harmonious home environment for the child, so that he can get various opportunities and motivation to develop skills, confidence and over all perfect personality.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Subjective Well-Being among Institutionalized and Non-Institutionalized Senior Citizens

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Keywords: *Subjective Well-Being, Institutionalized, Non-Institutionalized, Senior Citizens*

The concept of subjective well-being has ever been a matter of intense debate and it has always cogitated the minds of great thinkers all over the world ever since the inception of human civilization. Still it is difficult to define it comprehensively as to what constitutes good life. It varies from individual to individual as some people think material wealth is the source of happiness where as for others, it is renunciation. In fact, the Western and the Eastern cultures are markedly different on the issue of subjective well-being as the former has always gone for how much more it can have and the latter struggled for the least requirement of life. Naturally, the dichotomy is science versus religion or more precisely, it is materialism versus spiritualism. The result is that the West has developed the empirical science and the East has excelled in spirituality. Thus, the overall culture influences the mass into grasping the philosophy of subjective well-being on the average. That's why the count on subjective well-being may be subjected to external or internal factors like sense-pleasure, human relationship, love-needs, material gain or renunciation leading to spiritual upliftment.

Stock et al in their scholarly work defined happiness as: "The degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his life as-a-whole favorably (Veenhoven: 1984). Further, it is clarified that: "Subjective well-being is an abstract, super ordinate construct entailing the affective reactions of individuals along a positive-negative continuum to their life experiences" (Stock, Okun, & Benin: 1986). The evaluation of subjective well-being has its roots in the cognitive process in any individual which is inherited by birth and enriched by environment. Thus, life satisfaction issuing from cognitive judgments and the play of moods and emotions issuing from affective evaluations are both considered for the study of SWB. Generally, people are said to have high SWB if they are satisfied with the circumstances of life that includes both the achieved and ascribed status. Literally the term happiness is used in place of its psychological terminology as SWB and people with frequent positive emotions are said to be happier than those experience more of negative emotions.

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Of late, the scientific study of subjective well-being since past two decades has shown increasing interest in studying the negative emotions for the measure of SWB. So, radical behaviorism of earlier decades as study of SWB has modified itself toward more comprehensive results. Psychological articles researching on negative states for the measure of SWB outnumber those examining positive states by a ratio of 17 to 1 (Myers & Diener : 1995).

If we discuss about subjective well-being among senior citizens we find that all of us want to live a long life, but no one wants to get old. As ridiculous it seems, the same ironic it is. Because instead of enjoying the beautiful dusk of life. Most of elderly people are trapped in Falsehood. Anxieties, uncontrolled nostalgia, irrational assessment of life are main among these. Because of this the desire of elderly people to live a free and unrestrained life without having any responsibility remains unfulfilled. And from this emerges the decline in qualitative life and absence of subjective well-being.

Keeping these dilemmas in mind, researcher has created his research's frame work. It is anticipated that this research work will come out with important results for the welfare of elderly people. So that elderly people either living with family or in old age homes can enjoy this beautiful dusk of life having subjective well-being.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Ku, McKenna, and Fox (2007) studied dimensions of subjective well-being and effects of physical activity in Chinese older adults. Subjective well-being (SWB) and its relationship with physical activity have not been systematically investigated in older Chinese people. So They explored these issues using qualitative interviews with a purposive sample of 23 community dwelling Chinese older adults (age 55–78 y, 12 women); 16 were physically active and 7 physically inactive. Using cross-case analyses, 7 dimensions of SWB emerged: physical, psychological, developmental, material, spiritual, sociopolitical, and social. Although elements of SWB may be shared across cultures, specific distinctions were identified. Active respondents reported the unique contributions of physical activity to the physical, psychological, developmental, and social elements of SWB. The findings suggest that physical activity could enhance the quality of life in Chinese older adults.

Singh and Dinesh (2009) conducted a study on health cognitions and subjective well-being in middle-aged and older adults. Health cognition stand for one's beliefs, perceptions, attribution meaning about health perceived status and complaints. Subjective well-being involves the study of what lay people might call happiness and satisfaction. In the study, psychological variables related to health have been studied in 132 rural participants above 55 years of age (Male 64 female 68). In order to compare the age effect on health beliefs, perception of health status, subjective well-being (happiness, life satisfaction, optimism), occurrence of somatic complaints and psychological distress symptoms the sample was divided into middle aged group comprised of 72 participants while there were 60 participants in older. The difference between sexes has also been tested for various variables separately and in interaction with age.

Doumit and Nasser (2010) conducted a study on quality of life and wellbeing of the elderly in Lebanese nursing homes. The purpose of their study was to assess quality of life in relation to wellbeing among Lebanese nursing home elderly residents. The study attempted to understand

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the impact of structures, processes and skills on elderly health status. For this purpose 220 normally functioning elderly respondents from 33 nursing homes were studied. A quasi-experimental approach measured psychological and health-related factors using the Geriatric Depression Scale, Activity of Daily Living, EuroQol EQ-5D and the Mini-Nutritional Assessment (MNA) instruments. A relatively high level of mild depression among elderly residents and a lack of mobility were found. Generally, normally functioning elderly residents were well nourished and had moderate daily activity levels. They claimed that the study is original in the sense that it assesses elderly residents' psychological and physical health status in relation to institutional structures, processes, and skills.

Bockerman, Johansson and Saarni (2011) conducted a study on Institutionalisation and subjective wellbeing for old-age individuals: is life really miserable in care homes? The purpose of the their study was to examines whether there are systematic differences in the quality of life, depending on whether an individual is institutionalised or not, holding health status and income level constant. In doing this they used a nationally representative data set, the health in Finland. When controlling for health and functional status, demographics and income level, they found that individuals who are living in old-age homes actually report significantly higher levels of subjective wellbeing than those who are living at home. We argue that this finding emerges from queuing for care homes. This implies that there are individuals living at home who are so frail that they should really be living in an old-age institution, but because of the queues for that particular mode of living, they are living at home with a decreased quality of life as a consequence.

Patil and Itagi (2013) conducted a study on subjective well-being status among institutionalized and non institutionalized senior citizens. The study was carried out on 140 respondents belonging to 60 years and above age group living in old age homes (n=65) and with family (n=75) and the sample was randomly selected from Hubli-Dharwad city, Karnataka with an objective to compare the level of subjective well-being among institutionalized and non-institutionalized senior citizens and to know the factors influencing subjective well-being among both senior citizens. Results of the study revealed that institutionalized senior citizens had more of well-being and non-institutionalized had more of overall subjective well- being and ill- being status. Among institutionalized, education (along with gender and age) and age (socio-economic status, financial support and family type) significantly influenced the well- being and ill- being respectively. Education (along with age, socio- economic status and financial support) and gender (along with age, socio- economic status and financial support) significantly influenced the illbeing status of non-institutionalized senior citizens. It was interesting to note that none of the variables significantly influenced the well- being status.

Gull & Dawood (2013) conducted a study on religiosity and subjective well-being among institutionalized elderly in Pakistan. The study was con-ducted in 2012 which examined the relationship between religiosity and subjective well being amongst institutionalized elderly people. Data was collected from 100 adults above the age of 60 years in Lahore, Pakistan, through purposive sampling strategy. Religiosity was measured through Religiosity Index, while Trait Well Being Inventory was used to assess subjective well being. Pearson product moment correlation coefficient and regression analysis were used for the analysis of the data, which revealed that religiosity has a significant positive relationship with life satisfaction. However, no

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association was found between religiosity and mood level. Moreover, regression analysis indicated that religiosity positively predicted life satisfaction among elderly.

Aims of the study

- To explore the difference between institutionalized and non-institutionalized senior citizens on subjective well-being.
- To explore the difference between male and female senior citizens on subjective well-being.
- To explore the interactional effect between residential status and gender on subjective well-being.

Hypothesis of the study

- There would be significant difference between institutionalized and non-institutionalized senior citizens on subjective well-being.
- There would be significant difference between male and female senior citizens on subjective well-being.
- There would be significant interactional effect between residential status and gender on Subjective well-being.

METHODOLOGY

The total sample was consisted of 240 subjects in which 120 were non-institutionalized and 120 were institutionalized old age subjects age ranging 60 to 75. Among 120 subjects of non-institutionalized conditions there were 60 males and 60 females. The non-institutionalized subjects were those subjects who were living in the home with their family. Among 120 institutionalized subjects 60 subjects were males and 60 subjects were females. The institutionalized old age subjects were from 5 different old age homes situated in Uttarakhand.

Tool used

For measuring Subjective well-being of Senior citizens Sell and Nagpal's The subjective well-being inventory (SUBI) will be used the Inventory in Consisted of 40 items and measures 11 dimensions of subjective well-being, a namely General well-being-positive affect, Expectation-achievement congruence, Transcendence, Family group support, Social support, Primary group concern, Inadequate mental mastery, Perceived ill-health, Deficiency in social contacts, General well-being-negative affect. This scale has high inter-rater reliability, inter-scores reliability, and test-retest reliability. The scale has been found to be highly significant and satisfactory in validity. Patil, M.S. and Halyal, P.S (1999) have reported that the test retest reliability of the SUBI inventory is 0.79 and the validity is 0.86.

Statistical method

There were two independent variables varied in two ways. So a 2*2 factorial design was used. F-ratio was calculated to study separate and interactional effects of residential status and gender on the dependent variables.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION*Table- 1: Summary of analysis of variance for subjective well-being.*

Source of variance	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Level of Significance
Residential status (A)	8027.27	1	8027.27	20.98	.01
Gender (B)	3936.60	1	3936.60	10.29	.01
Interaction (AxB)	567.267	1	564.267	1.47	NS
Error	90295.79	236	382.6		

Table- 2: Mean and S.D of four groups on subjective well-being.

Groups	Mean	S.D	N
Non-institutionalized male Ss	73.48	15.26	60
Non-institutionalized female Ss	68.45	15.34	60
Institutionalized male Ss	64.98	13.44	60
Institutionalized female Ss	60.48	10.31	60

Table 3: Mean of means for subjective well being.

Groups	Non-institutionalized	Institutionalized	Aggregate Mean
Male	73.48	64.98	69.23
Female	68.45	60.48	64.46
Mean	70.96	62.73	66.84

Table 1 reveals that F-ratio for the main effect of residential status on subjective well-being is 20.98, which is statistically significant at 0.01 level of confidence. The finding indicates that non-institutionalized subjects and institutionalized subjects differ significantly on subjective well-being. As the table 3 depicts that the mean score of non-institutionalized subjects on subjective well being is 70.96 and the mean score of institutionalized subjects on subjective well-being is 62.73. This result indicates that non-institutionalized subjects are higher in their subjective well-being than institutionalized subjects. When we think of study all the items of scale and responses on the old men and statistical analyses, the fact comes out that the living place has significant effect on subjective-well-being. Since living place is such a stimulus that is not only a stimulus but it is an amalgam of them that glows emotions in a man in many different ways and these emotions causes psychological stable and transient (unstable) changes in the man. We can understand it in a different way that an old man finds it very difficult to reside in a shelter that is made for old men because the old man does not feel easy when he leaves the place, the neighbor's friends, relations, colleagues of society with whom he has lived so many years. On this stage of the age, it is very challenging to accept the changes according to the new atmosphere. Moreover, in spite of rich material and medical facilities senior citizens living in old age homes feel the lack of emotional security because they have seen their children growing like plant and have struggled a lot to make them able to live in this competitive world. So their attachment is natural with their sons, daughters, grandsons, granddaughters and daughter and spiraling from them compel them to live life loneliness and grumbling.

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The most important fact is that in spite of changing social values and standards old men are not ready to accept the shelter because our society as well as old men is not taking shelter as an alternative to old age the reason is our society up to considerable extent, is bases on traditional values. Even today the instance/example of Sravan Kumar and Devvrata is prevailed in our mind. So it is very difficult for old men to accept the rapidly changing social patterns, values and standards.

Contrary to it in Home base elderly all above mentioned negative stimulus are not found and comparatively they are more attached. It happens because society considers that going to a shelter is a failure of relationship between guardians and sons. Since the home bases elderly live with their family members, so they have the valid reason of satisfaction. Thus, significant difference of subjective well being between institutionalized elderly and home-bases elderly is natural.

This result of the study is in consistent with the result obtained by earlier investigators for example Chakrabarti (2009) elderly living in family setting are having more subjective well-being and level of satisfaction scores as compared to elderly living in old age homes. Contrary to these supportive studies, which show the sheer opposite effects conducted by Suvera (2012) the psychological well-being of the institutionalized and non-institutionalized aged cannot be predicted on the basis of their residence. Petri & Saarni (2011) found that who live in old people's homes actually report significant higher level of subjective well-being than those who live at home.

Table 1 further reveals that the F-ratio for the main effect of gender on subjective well-being is 10.29, which is statistically significant at .01 level of confidence. The finding indicates that male subjects and female subjects differ significantly on subjective well-being. As table 3 depicts that the mean score of male subjects on subjective well-being is 69.23 and the mean score of female subjects on subjective well being is 64.23. This result indicates that male subjects are higher in their subjective well-being than female subjects. we saw a significant effect gender on subjective well being because society, especially in India- a progressive but traditional society not only divide the roles of male and female, but also pressurize them to stick to their roles and boundary. The boundaries of males and females up to considerable extent are fixed and rigid even today. Roughly, from a person of same gender, in every circumstances, are expected to behave in a special way, for instance, whether the women of working class or domestic, literate or illiterate, of young age or old are often, in comparison to males, asked to do all the works related to kitchen. Since the roles of males and females are so fixed that they remain same even after changing the living place (shelter) or home. These roles create sentiments like mental and physical struggle, frustration, ego, satisfaction, happiness, despair etc. that shape the subjective well being. Since our society is patriarchal and follows the feudal values strictly, as result the status of females becomes secondary due to this, we find decline in the status of their subjective well being. On the other hand, males have monopoly even all the resources due to that they carry the subjective well-being. Since our society is patriarchal and follows the feudal values strictly, as result the status of females becomes secondary due to this, we find decline in the status of their subjective well being. On the other hand, males have monopoly even all the resources due to that they carry the subjective well-being

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An old woman serves her husband in the same way since her marriage. In spite of reducing physical and mental capacity she serves her husband with more carefully because her husband is growing old gradually but the society and husband do not pay heed that the woman is, too growing old. The same thing has been seen in shelter where woman are ready to help old serve their husband.

Besides it, there is a limitation of age for superannuation but for the domestic work there is no retirement for women. Men consider monopoly over women and deny their personal existence. In spite of being old there are so many lifetime responsibilities over them. From daughter's pregnancy to daughter-in-law's, from birth to look after the grandson and daughters, these responsibility she carries while after a fix age men's life become free from responsibilities.

Finally, the most important and most concrete reasons are that in comparison to males, females are less education and financially helpless that's why they are totally depend upon their husbands. This dependence gives way to many new negative aspects that cause decline in the level of subjective well being. On the other hand, most of the males are educated and financially strong and are head of the family. So consequently, in comparison to females the level of their subjective well-being is greater and we find significant difference between the subjective well being of male elder lies and female elderly. This finding gets a support from the investigation conducted by Shyam & Yadev (2006). It may be recalled that the investigator in their study, observed that woman had poor well-being as compared to men. Lakshmi and Roopa (2013) are also of the view that there is a significant difference between the institutional and non-institutional elderly men and women in all the dimensions of quality of life. And male elderly are having more quality of life than female elderly subjects. Contrary to these supportive studies, the study conducted by Suvera (2012) shows the sheer absence of gender effect. According to him the psychological well-being of the institutionalized and non-institutionalized aged cannot be predicted on the basis of their sex.

The F-ratio for the interaction between gender and residential status is 0.147, which is statistically not significant at .05 level of confidence. . It means that residential status and gender independently influence subjective well-being of the elderly but when their effects are combined their interactional effect comes to be non-significant, indicating that the individual effects of residential status and gender of elderly subjects dissipate when their effects are combined. It, thus, suggest that to be male elderly and / or non-institutionalized senior citizens is / are sufficient to feel greater amount of subjective well-being.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Depression and Psychological Well-Being among Living Institutionalized and Non- Institutionalized Elderly

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ABSTRACT

India is fast developing country. The elderly population is large and increasing due to development of health care facilities. Elderly people are facing physical, psychological and health issues due to economic impairment, urbanization, modernization. Globalizations have brought lifestyle changes which resulted in disintegration of joint family system and alternative living arrangements for elderly have come forward. Living in old age homes is becoming an option for elderly. This study is an attempt to find out the mean difference between depression and psychological well being among institutionalized and non- institutionalized elderly. To realize the objectives and to test the hypotheses formulated, two tools were used to assess depression and psychological wellbeing The Geriatric depression Inventory (Holroyd & Clayton, 2000), and Psychological Wellbeing Scale (Bhogley & Prakash, 1995), were used on elderly population. For purposes of the present study, a total sample of 60 were taken out of which 30 were (60+ years) elderly people from old age homes and 30 were (60+ y ears) from non-institutionalized elderly from Tirupati in Chittoor district ,Andhra Pradesh. 't'-test was applied to check the difference of depression and psychological well being and the Karl-person 'r' method used to check the correlation. Result revealed significant differences in depression and psychological well being with respect to institutionalized and non- institutionalized elderly. While co-relation between depression and psychological well-being reveals -0.68, negative correlation.

Keywords: *Depression; Psychological Wellbeing; Institutionalized; Non- Institutionalized; Elderly People.*

The process of human aging is complex and individualized which can occur in the biological, psychological and social sphere. Biological aging is characterized by progressive age-changes in

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metabolism, chemical properties of cells, leading to impaired self-regulation, regeneration, structural changes in functional tissues and organs. The aging of humans is a physiological and dynamic process ongoing with time. In accordance with most gerontologists' assertions it starts in the fourth decade of life and leads to death. It is a natural and irreversible process which can run as successful aging, typical or pathological. Biological changes that occur with age in the human body affect mood, attitude to the environment, physical condition and social activity, and designate a separate place for seniors in the family and society (Dziechiaz and Filip 2014). Ageing refers to human awareness and its adaptability to the ageing process. Psychical ageing refers to human awareness and his flexibility to the ageing process. Among adjustment attitudes we can make a distinction positive, dependence, hostile towards others and towards self attitudes. With progressed age, difficulties with adjustment to the new situation are increasing, adverse changes in the cognitive and intellectual sphere take place, perception process involutes, perceived ambiance and information received is lowered, and thinking processes change. Social ageing is limited to the role of an old person is culturally conditioned and may change as customs change. Social ageing refers to how a human being perceives the ageing process and how society, (Malgorzata, et.al.2014) .

The life expectancy of an average Indian has increased from 36.7 in 1951 to over 67.14 in 2012. Also the population of older adults (more than 60 yr) in India increased to 102 millions in 2011 Census of India (2011).Which shows males outnumbered females in India? The total elderly population in India (60 and above) increased from 24 million in 1961, to 43 million in 1981 It further increased to 57 million in 1991 and to 77 million in 2001 and is expected to rise to 301million in 2051 and 340million in 2061 (Liebig, 2003). Life expectancy of the aged population has also increased and females have higher life year's men among the elderly. Old age, the closing period in the life span people "move away" from previous. But due to natural and life style changes older people living in old aged homes have increased. The recent data shows that there are more than 1,000 old age homes in India with most of them located in the southern India. The old age homes are of two types: free and paid. The "free" type homes care for the destitute old people who have no family to support their care. They are given shelter, food, clothing and medical care. In the paid type, services are available for a price. These pay & stay homes cater to the needs of elderly from middle income to higher income groups. A number of studies have discussed various reasons for the elderly to be in old age homes. Migration of children has been cited as a major reason for the elderly to move into old age homes. However, there are studies (Siva Raju, et 2011); which cite the need for independence as the reason why the elderly live in old age homes. Lack of care within the family, insufficient housing, economic hardship and break-up of joint family are also cited as reasons by many studies for older people to join in old age homes, (Bansod, & Paswan, 2006; Bharati, 2009; Mishra, 2008; Ramamurti & Jamuna, 1996; Kalavar & Jamuna, 2006).

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Depression is becoming a very important issue in modern society. Depression is one of the most common psychological conditions during the normal course of life with so much of losses and disappointments. Depression itself refers to a heterogeneous set of phenomenon ranging from simple mood swings to severe affective state. With ensuing social problems to be expected, it may become the disease with the greatest social burden after ischemic heart disease. Considering that depression is the most common psychological problem in old age, its management in the elderly population is essential (Young Ju Jee, and Yun Bok Lee 2013). Geriatric depression is a major health hazard with devastating outcomes. According to Kalpan and Shadock (1999), 15 to 20% of old population may experience depression in old age is quite complex. Introduces a “dual-channel” conception of well-being, which indicates that positive and negative dimensions of an individual’s well-being are independent, as they are influenced by different variables. These findings are empirically endorsed in Smits, Deeg, and Bosscher’s (1995) study of the associations of different facets of personal control with well-being among older adults. These authors found positive and negative affects to be associated with different control measures. Negative affect was associated with sense of coherence and neuroticism while positive affect was predicted by mastery with global well-being and social inadequacy (e.g., a feeling that a respondent cannot easily relate to others). All these studies point to the importance of assessing both positive and negative dimensions in psychological well-being research. Thus, in addition to happiness, this review Crawford & Caltabiano (2011) focuses on depressive symptomatology as a construct connoting the aggregate of depressive symptoms including clinical depression.

In gerontology literature, the terms of psychological well-being and subjective well-being have been used interchangeably to represent identical concepts (Diener, 1984; George, 1981). In more recent literature, depending on the investigators’ research framework, well-being terms present very similar or even identical constructs to successful aging (e.g., Iwamasa & Iwasaki, 2011; Litwin, 2005; Rowe & Kahn, 1998), quality of life (e.g., Lawton, 1999; Wiggins, Netuveli, Hyde, Higgs, & Blane, 2008), health-related quality of life (e.g., Deck, 2002; Goulia, Voulgari, Tsifetaki, Drosos, & Hyphantis, 2010), and life satisfaction (e.g., Gaymu & Springer, 2010; Sparks, 2004).

Positive and negative dimensions influence an older adult’s life course. Bradburn (1969) notes that the concept of psychological well-being can best be assessed as a function of two independent dimensions – positive and negative effect. This concept derives from data in Bradburn and Caplovitz’s (1965) study of a probability sample of adults in four Illinois communities, although the details of this study were not described. Against this background, the aim of the study was to find out the mean difference between depression and psychological well being among elderly people who are living in old-age homes and living in the community along with their families. Depression is common in the elderly and is a major public health problem. The World Health Organization, (2005) also emphasizes that depression, which is the fourth

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most common illness, can lead to physical, emotional, social and economic problems .The prevalence rate of depression varies worldwide and their prevalence rates range between 10% and 55% (Sherina, Rampal, and Mustaqim, 2004., Khattri, and Nepal, 2006).Study shows the depression ranges from 34.6% to 77.5% in old age home. (Weyerer, Mann, and Ames, 1995).Depression in late life is associated with significant morbidity, including deficits in a range of cognitive functions and considerable influence on functional impairment, disability, decreased quality of life, and has a negative effect on the body's recovery from illness, increases the rate of suicide, increases use of health care services and expenses and can result in early death and disturbance in the general state of wellness. (Kaplan and Shadock 1996, Mathur and Sen 1989).

Chalise (2014), A study was conducted in 2014 indicates that many elderly living in the Briddashrm are suffering from depression. Finding indicates that the prevalence of depression was 57.8%. Among them 46.7% had mild, 8.9% had moderate and 2.2% had severe depression. There should be some interruption from the concerned authorities so that depression can be reduced which will support to the well-being and quality of life of elderly

Objectives

In the context of fore going observation a need was felt to analyzed .the level of depression and psychological wellbeing among institutionalized and Non- institutionalized elderly with the following objectives .

1. To measure the levels of depression among institutionalized and non- institutionalized elderly.
2. To measure the state of psychological well being among institutionalized and non-institutionalized elderly
3. To test co-relation between depression and psychological well being.

Hypothesis

Keeping the fore said objectives the following hypotheses were framed.

1. There would be significant differences in depression among institutionalized and non-institutionalized elderly.
2. There would be significant differences in psychological well being among institutionalized and non- institutionalized elderly.
3. There would be co-relation between depression and psychological well being among elderly.

METHODOLOGY

Samples and Tools

For purposes of the present study, a total sample of 60 were taken out of which 30 were (above 60 years) elderly people from old age homes and 30 were (above 60 years) from non-institutionalized elderly people of Tirupati in Chittoor district, Andhra Pradesh.

Research Tools

The following test tools were used. Their reliability, validity and objectivity mentioned in their respective manuals. Were taken as considered as criteria.

1. Geriatric Depression Inventory (GDS-15) reported to be the most suitable for screening depression in older adults (Holroyd & Clayton, 2000). The GDS-15 has been translated to Telugu, the regional language and was administered to 30 older adults (N = 30) with an interval of 10 days. The test-retest reliability of GDS-15 is 0.87. The GDS-15 was standardized as part of ICMR funded project on Healthy Aging (Ramamurti, 1989).

2. Psychological Well Being Scale (Bhogley & Prakash 1995) A 28 item scale as a quick measure of Psychological well-being is comprehensive, factor ally adequate, reliable and valid tool. The scale has internal consistency coefficient of 0.91. Retest using the same questionnaire after three months, yielded a correlation of 0.72. This scale has high correlation of 0.62 with subjective well-being questionnaire of Nagpal & Sell (1985) and 0.48 with Subjective well-being questionnaire of Verma & Verma (1989). Scoring: The 28 items on the scale have two response options: “yes” and “no”. There is no right or wrong answers. If the response matches the scoring key, score of 1 is given. Maximum possible score is 28 with lower score indicative of low psychological well-being.

Procedure

The study was conducted on elderly male and female people who are staying in old age homes and staying at homes in the community along with their families. The entire process of fill the inventory was explained to them fully and clearly. The instructions given on the questionnaire were explained to them. It was also made clear to them that their scores would be kept secret. It was checked that none of the respondent left any questions unanswered.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After collecting data from old age homes and non- institutionalized elderly people the scoring of the obtained data was done according to the manuals. Relevant statistical tests like “t” test were applied and result tables were drawn. The interpretations of the results obtained are as follows.

Table 1: Showing the Mean, SD and “t” value of Depression

	N	Mean	SD	T
Institutionalized elderly people	30	12.39	3.89	3.65**
Non- institutionalized elderly people	30	10.21	3.01	

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According to table 1 the results obtained on the basic area of depression reveals significant difference among adult and aged.

The Institutionalized elderly people mean score is 12.39, the mean score of Non - institutionalized elderly people is 10.21. with the standard deviation 3.89 and 3.01. respectively the t -value 3.65 is significant at 0.01 levels. Institutionalized elderly people are more depressive as compared with non- institutionalized elderly people. So we can say that first hypothesis there would be significant differences in depression among institutionalized and non- institutionalized elderly is not accepted.

Table 2: Showing the Mean, SD and “ t ” value of Psychological wellbeing

	N	Mean	SD	T
Institutionalized elderly people	30	128.60	10.11	3.01**
Non- institutionalized elderly people	30	102.22	13.28	

According to table 2 the results obtained on the area of psychological well-being reveals that the mean of Institutionalized elderly people is 128.60 and the mean of non- Institutionalized elderly people is 102.22. Among the two groups the Institutionalized elderly mean is high indicating that psychological wellbeing is high in them then non- Institutionalized elderly then the second hypothesis there would be significant differences in psychological well being among institutionalized and non- institutionalized elderly ” is accepted.

Table 2: Showing the correlation between depression and psychological Well-being

Variables	N	r
Depression	30	-0.68
Psychological Wellbeing	30	

According to table 3 the results shows that negative correlation between depression and psychological well-being. The -0.68 negative correlation between depression and psychological well-being. It means that as the depression increases the psychological well being decreases and when depression decreases the psychological well being increases, so that we can say there is a relationship between depression and psychological wellbeing. Then the hypothesis “There would be co-relation between depression and psychological well being among elderly” is accepted .The above results are in concordance with the earlier studies (Dhara and Jogsan 2013), which indicate that being away from family and the place of living creates a feeling of un-wantedness and results in a feeling of loneliness, which may lead to depression. The other significant finding of this study indicate that psychological wellbeing is higher among institutionalized elderly, this may be because of the better facilities and chance to share their feelings with other inmates which many create a feelings that they are not the one’s who are in such and meaning are in similar situation . It might have made than that the cultural changes

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have resulted because of lifestyle changes. India being a developing country, which is in a period of transition, such feelings are inevitable among institutionalized elderly people. It is pertinent at this junction to further probe the relation between psychological wellbeing and place of living because staying in a old age home for a long time might made the elder people to adjusted to the new life which improved the in psychological wellbeing.

CONCLUSION

There was a significant difference in depression and psychological well being among Institutionalized and non-Institutionalized elderly people, it shows that the depression increases the psychological well being decreases and depression decreases the psychological well being increases among the elderly people .There were -0.68 negative correlations are seen between depression and psychological well-being.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Emotional Maturity and Academic Achievement among Adolescent Students: A Review of Studies

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ABSTRACT

Emotional maturity refers to our capability to understand and manage our emotions. When we are faced with a complex situation, our level of emotional maturity is one of the biggest factors in determining our ability to cope. Adolescence is a time of transition from childhood to being an independent adult; it is a period of life characterized by change and by moving away from one's family and towards one's peers. Education is the process of development from child to Adolescence or adulthood. The School education particularly high School education plays an important role in personal and professional success. But during this stage of life many factors influence, the process of education an especially academic accomplishment that is why the present study has been conducted to investigate the relationship of emotional maturity in the academic achievement among Adolescence students. The findings of the present investigation reveal that there is a positive correlation between emotional maturity and academic achievement among Adolescence students. Thus, emotional maturity plays important role in the academic achievement of students.

Keywords: *Emotional Maturity, Academic Achievement & Adolescence.*

Children are the future citizens of a country. Children are the greatest resource of the nation. The children are required to adopt certain behavioral standards for the integration of the society. These standards vary somewhat from culture to culture and society to society. They are the key regulators that guide the child towards the social and anti-social behavior. Adolescence is one of the important periods of life. It is age in which adolescence face a many problems. Family also plays an important role in the personality development of adolescence. Adolescent period is associated with notable changes in mood sometimes known as mood swings. Cognitive, emotional and attitudinal changes which are characteristic of adolescence, often take place

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during this period, and this can be a cause of conflict, stress and depression and positive personality development on the other. Adolescence required proper guidance at this crucial phase of life for enhancing their positive self-concept, enriching their knowledge and skills in decision-making, conflict resolution and management of emotions. Researchers have proved that this is the most important period of one's life and during this time the vital foundation is laid for optimum development of an individual personality.

Emotional Maturity

Emotional Maturity is one of the vital components of personality which characterizes Multi-trait non-cognitive psychological concept. According to Walter D. Smitson (1974), Emotional maturity is a process in which the personality is continuously striving for greater sense of emotional health, both Intra-psychically and Intra-personality. Emotional Maturity or stability might be considered as a potential factor in any field of life.

It is a stage, which is very essential in human life. One of the major aims of any good educational programme is to help the learner to gain emotional maturity. Children studying in Xth class do not have much emotional maturity because of their inadequate control over the environment. A mature adult due to the development of his various powers has greater control over his environment. So, he possesses emotional maturity to a greater degree. An emotionally mature person has full control over the expression of his feelings. However, he behaves according to the accepted social values and ideals.

Jersild (1963) says, 'Emotional maturity means the degree to which person has realized his potential for richness of living and has developed his capacity to enjoy things, to relate himself to others, to love and to laugh; his capacity for whole hearted sorrow, when an occasion arises and his capacity to show fear when there is occasion to be frightened, without feeling a need to use a false mask of courage, such as must be assumed by persons afraid to admit that they are afraid'. [1]

According to Crow and Crow (1962), "The emotionally mature or stable individual regardless of his age, is the one who has the ability to overcome tension to disregard certain emotion stimulators that effect the young and view himself objectively, as he evaluates his assets and liabilities and strive towards an improved integration of his thought, his emotional attitude and his overt behaviour. [2]

Mostly, 'emotional balance' and 'emotional maturity' is taken as synonymous terms. But actually, they are not. Emotional balance emphasizes the value of learning to cope with both pleasant and unpleasant emotions. One can attain emotional maturity without having attained emotional balance although the vice versa is not true. An emotionally balanced person will necessarily be emotionally mature person. Emotional balance is quality of an adult and not a child. Thus,

emotional maturity is a relative term. It is directly related to age and stage of development of the individual.

Academic Achievement

Now-a-days the world is becoming more and more competitive. Quality of performance has become the key factor for individual progress especially in adolescent stage. Adolescence is the period of transition from childhood to adulthood. This period has flexibility, because of the individual differences. It is often described as the period of storms and stresses. This is the period from 16 to 18 or 19 years. It is characteristically an important period in the life span, a time of change, a problem age, a time when the individual searches or identifies, a dreaded age, a time of unrealisation and the threshold of adulthood. Adolescent is a period of physical, social, emotional and mental change and development. At present parents that wish their children to climb the ladder of performance to a high level. This desire for high level of achievement puts a lot of pressure on teachers and students, and in general the system of education.

Good (1981) in the Dictionary of Education refers to academic achievement as the knowledge attained or skills developed in the school subjects, usually designated by test scores or marks assigned by the teacher.[3] According to Kohli (1975), academic achievement is the level of proficiency attained in academic work or as formally acquired knowledge in the school subjects which is often represented by percentage of marks obtained by students in examination.[4]

According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2000), achievement is a thing that somebody has done successfully; especially using his/her own effort and skill. From the definitions given above, it may be concluded that academic achievement is the core of wider term 'Educational growth' and perhaps none would deny the importance of academic achievement in child's life. Achievement in the school may be taken to mean any desirable learning that is observed in the students. Since the word desirable implies a value judgment. So, it is obvious that a particular piece of learning may be referred to as achievement or not depends upon whether it is considered desirable or not. Achievement is concerned to a greater extent with the development of knowledge, understanding and acquisition of skills.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Positive correlation between Emotional Maturity & Academic Achievement

Dhami (1974) investigated the intelligence, emotional maturity and socioeconomic status as factors indicative of success in scholastic achievement of IX and X class students of age group 14+ and 15+ of different categories of students of Punjab and reported a high significant relationship between emotional maturity, intelligence and scholastic achievement of high schools students. The study also reported parent's education, type of house in which family lives, family income and type of reading material has a positive effect on the emotional maturity of the children. [5]

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Sabapathy (1986) examined the relationship between the variables anxiety, emotional-social maturity, socio-economic status and academic achievement of students. He found emotional maturity was positively and significantly related to achievement in individual subjects and total academic achievement.[6]

Muley Patnam and Vasekar (2003) studied the emotional maturity of school going children of slum and urban areas and the influencing factors. The slum children differ in their emotional maturity from the urban children, which was tested in this study. The sample consists of 120 children, of which 60 were from slum and 60 from urban areas. Significant positive relationship was found between urban children's emotional maturity and their academic performance, chronological age, ordinal position abilities, size and type of family, parenting, general mental ability number of friends as well as their parental age, education and employment while no significant correlation was found between slum children's emotional maturity and their background variables.[7]

Lekhi (2005) in her study on a sample of 939 (male and female) from govt. and private schools of Punjab, found that there is no significant difference in the emotional maturity and emotional intelligence of boys and girls as t-ratio is found to be non-significant. However, on comparing their mean scores, it is observed that boys scored little low (hence more emotionally mature) as compared to girls. But significant differences were found between rural and urban adolescence in their emotional maturity. She also concluded that emotional maturity correlated negative and significantly with intelligence and academic achievement. [8]

Suman (2009) made a study of learning achievement in science of students in secondary schools in relation to their metacognitive skills and emotional competence. The study was conducted over a sample of 500 students of class IX (age between 13 to 15 years) from six secondary schools situated in South West Zone of Delhi. In this study he found that there were significant positive relationship between (i) emotional competence & learning achievement (ii) metacognitive skills & learning achievement (iii) emotional competence & metacognitive skills of the students studying in secondary schools. [9]

Thukral, Praveen and Singh, Surjit (2010) made a study on a social maturity and academic achievement of high school students. The study was conducted over a sample of 400 (200 boys and 200 girls) high school students studying in Xth class in 8 different schools (4 urban and 4 rural) affiliated to CBSE, New Delhi. In his study he found that there existed -significant relationship between social maturity and academic achievement of high school students. No significant differences were observed between boys and girls as well as rural and urban high school students on the basis of their social maturity. [10]

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A study conducted to examine the role of emotional maturity and emotional intelligence in learning and achievement, on 300 male Intermediate students of Meerut city. Findings reveal that emotional maturity has insignificant effect on learning but significant effect on academic achievement. Emotional intelligence has insignificant effect on learning but significant effect on academic achievement. [11]

In a study on the role of social maturity in academic achievement of high school students it was found that the social maturity contributed the highest in the academic achievement of high school students in a given set of variables. Moreover, the total variance accounted for the variable of social maturity in case of boys was lesser than those of girls and the total sample. The reduced values of partial coefficients of correlation between social maturity and academic achievement indicated the weakness in relationship between social maturity and academic achievement which was more marked in case of girls than the boys and the total sample. Boys and girls as well as rural and urban high school students did not differ significantly in their social maturity. [12]

Education brings about considerable changes in the individual relating to his physical, intellectual and emotional conditions. It becomes the responsibility of everyone concerned with education to prevent failure and wastage and ensure proper academic achievement and success on the part of students. Academic achievement is considered to be a composite criterion and not a unitary one. [13]. Emotional maturity as an important factor exerts influence on the academic achievement of students. In this context, it is necessary to study the relationship between academic achievement and emotional maturity of B.Ed. trainees. A person who is able to keep his emotion under control is said to have emotional maturity. It is an ability to tolerate a reasonable amount of frustration (Kaplan and Barar, 2000). Emotional maturity is the process of impulse control through the agency of self. It is a process of readjustment, which is patterned in accordance with the approved expression and repression in their cultures. In the present investigation the marks scored by the B.Ed. trainee's model exam in the University examination have been used as the academic achievement scores. The emotional maturity scale developed by Romapal (1984) was used to assess the emotional maturity level of the students. Descriptive, differential and correlation analysis were computed to analyse the data. It is inferred that a positive and significant relationship exists between academic achievement and emotional maturity.

Malliick Rinku, Singh Archana, Chaturvedi Poonam & Kumar Narendra (2014), "A Study on Higher Secondary Student's Emotional Maturity and Achievement". This study found that (i) there is significant difference between male and female higher secondary students with respect to level of emotional maturity. (ii) There is no significant difference between rural and urban higher secondary students with respect to level of emotional maturity. (iii) There is no significant difference between government and aided higher secondary students with respect to level of emotional maturity. (iv) There is significant difference between day scholar and hostel staying

higher secondary students with respect to level of emotional maturity and (v) there is significant difference between male and female higher secondary students with respect to level of achievement in economics. [14]

V.Shanmuganathan & K.Chinnappan (2014) The present study explored the extent to which the Emotional Maturity and Parental Encouragement have the relation with academic achievement among higher secondary course students. The descriptive survey research method was used for the study. In the present study sample of 1000 adolescence (385 boys and 615 girls) were taken by using proportionate stratified random sampling technique. The findings of the study revealed that: (i) there is a significant relationship between the emotional maturity and academic achievement of adolescent students; (ii) there is a significant relationship between the parental encouragement and academic achievement of adolescent students.[15]

Nikhat Yasmin Shafeeq & Afeefa Thaqib (2015) The aim of the present study is to investigate emotional maturity of secondary school students in relation to academic achievement. For this purpose a sample of 400 students (200 boys and 200 girls) of class IX were taken from 8 schools (4 Government and 4 Private) of Aligarh. For this purpose Emotional Maturity Scale by Dr. Yashvir Singh and Dr. Mahesh Bhargava (1990) and Academic Achievement of the VIII class were used .The study reveals that most of the secondary school students are extremely unstable regarding emotional maturity. The study also reveals that there exist a highly positive correlation between emotional maturity and academic achievement of secondary school students. [16]

Negative correlation between Emotional Maturity & Academic Achievement

Kaur, M. (2001) conducted study on ‘Emotional maturity of adolescence in relation to intelligence, academic achievement and environmental catalysts’ on a sample of 356 adolescence. The findings revealed; (a) Emotional maturity and intelligence were found to be closely related (b) No significant relationship was found between emotional maturity and academic achievement; (c) No significant difference was found in emotional maturity due to area, sex and type of school; (d) Students of government schools were found to be more emotionally mature than those of private schools. [17]

Gakhar S. C. (2003) conducted a study on “Emotional maturity of students at secondary stage: self-concept and academic achievement”. The study used a sample of 200 students of secondary stage, the study revealed: (i) there is significant difference in the emotional maturity of students of government and private schools; (ii) there is significant difference in the emotional maturity of students who are hostellers and day scholars; and (iii) there is significant difference in the emotional maturity of children of working and non-working mothers and the academic achievement on self-concept. It was found a significant negative correlation as found between self-concept and emotional maturity. It was also found negative correlation between academic achievement and emotional maturity. There was significant difference in the emotional maturity

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of boys and girls. It was revealed that there was significant difference in the emotional maturity of students belonging to urban and rural areas and emotional maturity of students of rural areas is more as their mean scores on emotional maturity inventory was less. There was significant difference in the emotional maturity of students who studied in government and private schools. Further, emotional maturity of students of private schools was more as compared to their counterparts due to low mean score on emotional maturity scale. It also showed that there was insignificant difference in the emotional maturity of students who lived in hostels and those who are day scholars. The study also revealed that there was insignificant difference in the emotional maturity of children of working and non-working mothers. [18]

Vikrant Upadhyay & S.K. Upadhyay (2004) studied “A study of emotional stability and academic achievement of boys and girls at secondary level” at Ph.D. level and concluded their main findings: (i) Boys are significantly emotionally stable than girls, (ii) There is no significant difference between boys and girls in academic achievement. (iii) There is no significant relationship between emotional stability and academic achievement of the students. [19]

Surjit Singh, and Parveen Thukral, (2011) conducted a study on “Emotional Maturity and Academic Achievement of High School Students”. The objectives of the study were: (i) To investigate the relationship of emotional maturity with academic Achievement of high school students; and (ii) To see the sex and regional difference on the basis of their emotional maturity. The sample comprised of 400 students of class X, out of them 200 were boys (100 rural and 100 urban) and 200 were girls (100 rural and 100 urban). The sample was collected by using multi-stage random sampling technique. The tool used was Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS) developed by Singh and Bhargava (1990). The findings of the study were: (i) there is no significant relationship between emotional maturity and academic achievement. (ii) No significant differences were observed between boys and girls and rural and urban students on the basis of their emotional maturity. [20]

METHODOLOGY

Objective

- To study the relationship between Emotional Maturity and Academic Achievement of adolescence students.

Hypothesis

- There would be a significant relationship between Emotional Maturity and Academic Achievement among adolescence Students.

RESULT & DISCUSSION

The period of adolescence is of supreme importance in the life of human. It is the period in which a person gets physical, emotional and mental maturity. Adolescence must learn how to cope with psychological stress, handle peer pressure, deal with their emotions, resolve conflicts,

build bridges with friends and family, develop self-confidence, safeguard themselves from high pressure marketing strategies, particularly of the alcohol industry, as well as cope with other stresses like academic competition and a hankering for material gains. They need to have good emotional maturity. Everyone has both positive and a negative experience in life. The ability to cope with negative experiences varies greatly from one person to another and, in large part, determines whether people enjoy their lives. Performance in any endeavor is largely contingent upon mental preparation, psychological strength and emotional maturity. Academic achievement has great importance for both the student, and those around him/her. There can be no doubt that it is affected by two broad factors: subjective factors or individual factors and objective factors or environmental factors. The subjective factors are related to the individual himself and the objective factors pertain to the environment of the individual. [21] Thus achievement refers to knowledge and skills gained from experience, an achieved level of expertise or performance in a specific domain.

On the basis of reviews of literature it is clear that there is a significant correlation between Emotional maturity and Academic achievement. A few studies also showed significant relationship between emotional maturity and intelligence as well as significant differences between boys and girls on the basis of their emotional maturity and academic achievement. It has been found that the studies which shows significant relationship between emotional maturity and academic achievement has been conducted in metropolitan cities, private schools, urban students. Parenting style and family environment contribute a lot in their upbringing which help them to become more resilient in during the challenges. Private schools also arrange some workshop related resilience building, skill enhancement, adjustment etc. So that students can grow academically and make better future in the desired field. However, there are a few studies which fail to show any significant relationship between these two variables. There are many factors which play a very important role like – upbringing, demographical area, background, social economic status etc.

Educational Implications

Now a days the society, the educational institutions, the school, the college, the family are so complex that the students are facing problems in their daily life in relation to their emotional maturity and anxiety, It is the responsibility of the researchers, teachers and parents that the problems should be identified very soon and immediate remedial measures should be provided to the students for the betterment of their lives.

1. A teacher plays important role in developing the personality of a child. He can influence them by his behaviour, thoughts and actions and also enable them to solve their problems which lead to lesser anxiety and better health.
2. The students must be helped to resolve the conflicts which arise due to various problems by understanding them. Students should be encouraged to participate in co-curricular activities which will inculcate the virtues of cooperation, self-discipline and feeling of

- brotherhood. They should be given the responsibilities in school work so that they develop self-discipline.
3. The curriculum should be constructed keeping in view the needs of students, problems and requirements of every individual.
 4. Parents should treat the children in the healthy way. Children should be provided with such an environment which leads to maximum development of positive emotions and minimum development of negative emotions.
 5. Parents should be behaving as friends of the child so that child can share feelings and problem. Parents have to guide them to solve their problems themselves, so that they develop as independent adults who can discriminate between right and wrong.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Risk Factors of Adolescent Aggression

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ABSTRACT

Adolescence as a transitional stage implies several changes and challenges demanding psycho-social adjustment that could be beyond one's coping for some adolescents who end up developing dysfunctional adaptive behaviour such as aggression. The present study aimed at investigating the risk factors of adolescent aggression. A total of 297 respondents constituted the sample of the study. Among them, 63 (21.21%) adolescents were male and 234 (78.78%) were female. A survey design was used. The descriptive statistics used for analysis of demographic variables were frequency and percentage. Chi Square test and Fishers exact test were used to find the risk factors of Aggression. The findings of the present study show a statistical significant association between gender and socio-economic status on adolescent aggression.

Keywords: *Adolescent Aggression, Socio-Economic Status, Gender.*

There are major developmental changes and challenges associated with the period of adolescence, as youth acquire and consolidate the competencies, attitudes and values necessary to make a successful transition into adulthood. Late adolescence and the period following it, often referred to as emerging adulthood, have been noted as particularly important for setting the stage for continued development through the life span as individuals begin to make choices and engage in a variety of activities that influence rest of their lives.

Bronfenbrenner (2001) in his ecological theory of developmental processes provides a valuable lens for examining developmental changes in adolescent aggression. The family and school environments have regularly been linked to psycho - social and behavioural adjustment problems in the adolescent period. The quality of adolescent - parent, adolescent - peer and adolescent - teacher interactions influence and may determine the way adolescents perceive themselves in relation to others, their attitudes and their behaviours. In addition to the family processes, peer contexts in adolescence have implications for adolescent aggression.

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Gender is a factor that plays a role in human aggression. Men are historically believed to be generally more physically aggressive than women (Coie & Dodge 1997, Maccoby & Jacklin 1974). This is one of the most robust and reliable behavioural sex differences and has been found across many different age groups and cultures. Rahman and Huq (2005) studied to explore aggression in adolescent boys and girls as related to socio-economic status (SES) and residential background in Bangladesh. They investigated 240 respondents and found that respondents with high SES expressed more aggression than those with middle and low SES. Respondents with middle SES expressed more aggression than the low SES and girls expressed more aggression than boys.

Family is the most important part of a child's environment (Adams, 1966). An individual's experiences in early life at home with his/her family in general and parents in particular are major determinants of a person's adjustment process during adolescence and in later life (Jayanagaraja, 1985). Children of physically punitive parents tend to use similar aggression when relating to others. Their parents often disciplined them by screaming, slapping, and beating - thus modeling aggression as a method of dealing with problems (Patterson, Chamberlain & Reid, 1982). There exists a relationship between intra familial communication and aggressive behaviours. Van Londen et al (2013), through a cross- sectional study, examined a model in which parenting, child social information processing and self-perception were simultaneously tested as risk factors associated with aggression. Most studies assessing the link between parental discipline and child aggression have focused primarily on discipline as a cause and aggression as an outcome.

Only a paucity of research has examined risk factors for community violence exposure across domains relevant to adolescents. Sharma, Grover and Chaturvedi (2008) conducted a Cross-sectional study in South Delhi, India, to assess risk behaviour related to interpersonal violence and its epidemiological correlates among 550 adolescents of various schools and colleges aged 14–19 years. The study identified a significant relationship with age $p = .007$) and gender ($p \leq .001$) of the adolescents. The logistic regression analysis of the study showed significant correlation of interpersonal violence with male gender, lower age, and number of close friends, having seen role models who smoke/drink, and reside in resettlement colonies, slums or villages.

Using data from 184 adolescents and their homeroom teacher, analyses with structural equation modelling, Bradshaw, Goldweber, Garbarino and James (2013) revealed a significant relation between relatively mild levels of social - environmental risk and aggression. This association was partially mediated by negatively biased social - cognitive factors (i.e., general knowledge structures and social information processing). Findings suggest that even relatively low levels of social rejection and community violence exposure characterizing suburban youth put them at an increased risk of problems with aggression.

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Several longitudinal studies and meta-analytic reviews have demonstrated that exposure to violent media is linked to aggression over time. Coyne and Archer (2004) studied 347 British adolescents and revealed that indirectly aggressive girls viewed more indirect aggression on television than non-aggressive girls did. It could be that after viewing rewarded gossiping, backbiting and rumour spreading, these girls are particularly likely to use this form of aggression in their own lives.

Thus, the genetic disposition of the individual, the disciplinary styles adopted by the parents, the school set-up and the environment in which the learners are situated could enhance their aggression. Through observational experiences an adolescent can develop into an aggressor via media influences.

Objectives

1. Prevalence of aggression among the respondents.
2. Risk factors of aggression.

Hypothesis

- Males are more aggressive than females.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

The purpose of this study is to determine the risk factors related to aggressive behaviour among late adolescents. To this end, a quantitative approach has been used. The selected design is a survey design. The Universe of the study comprises the Autonomous colleges offering undergraduate degree course in Mangaluru city. Purposive sampling technique is used to select the respondents possessing high aggression. All the first year degree students, both male and female adolescents aged between 17 and 19 years who volunteered for the study from the three Colleges, scoring high on the Aggression Scale (score 205 and above) have been included in the study. The required data has been elicited by administering the Aggression Scale developed by Mathur and Bhatnagar (2004).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 Prevalence of aggression among the respondents

	High Aggression	Low to Average Aggression	Total	Chi square Test
Males	41 (65.1%)	22 (34.9%)	63	X ² = 24.094
Females	73 (31.19%)	161 (68.8%)	234	<i>p</i> value 0.000
	114 (38.38%)	183 (61.61%)	297	<0.00 HS

High aggression is seen among 65.1% of males and 31.3% of females. The results show a statistical significant association between gender and aggression with X²= 24.094. Thus, there is

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a highly significant relation between the two groups. The hypothesis is proved. Males are found to be more aggressive than females as per the findings of Ghosh (2013) and Biswas (1989).

Table 2 Comparison between aggression and other variables

	Chi square Test				Fishers Exact Test	
	X2	df	p value		p value	
Sex and Aggression	24.094	1	.000	HS	.	.
Religion and Aggression	2.068	2	.356	NS		
Living Condition and Aggression	0.436	1	.509	NS		
Socio-Economic Status and Aggression	.				.004	HS
Presence of Parental Figures and Aggression	0.195	2	.907	NS		
Discipline and Aggression	.				.659	NS
Family Environment and Aggression	2.048	2	.359	NS		
Peers and Aggression	.				.718	NS
Peers Fights and Aggression	.				.595	NS
Teachers and Aggression	.				.892	NS
Community and Aggression	.				.238	NS
Engage in aggressive TV programmes and Aggression	0.721	2	.697	NS		
Engage in bullying classmates and neighbours and Aggression	2.291	2	.318	NS		

The results in Table 2 clearly show that there is a statistical significant association between sex and aggression ($X^2=24.094$). According to the theories of aggression by Parke and Slaby (1983), gender role and learning play a key role for anger and aggressive behaviour among males. Males are exposed to parenting practices that promote rough-and-tumble, anger and aggressive behaviours whereas females are exposed to parenting practices that promote caring and close interpersonal relationships. These differential socialization practices appear to foster adolescents' anger to a greater extent in males than in females. Also, there is a high significance between the socio - economic status of the respondents and aggression. One probable explanation of this finding might be related to the domain-specific theory of self-esteem (Baumeister, 1998; Kirkpatrick, Waugh, Valencia & Webster, 2002) which states that functionally distinct domains of self-esteem would predict aggression differentially.

Adolescents with high socio - economic status perceive superiority. Individuals with low socio - economic status, however, perceive social exclusion. Thus, social superiority and social exclusion emerge as reliable and positive predictors of aggression (Bushman & Baumeister, 1998). The findings of the present study may be approached from the view-point of these

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theoretical perspectives. However, there is no significance between aggression and the other demographic variables.

Table 3 Demographic details of the respondents

		Aggression					
		High Aggression		Average/Low		Total	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Sex	Male	41	65	22	34	63	100
	Female	73	31	161	68	234	100
Total		114		183		297	
Religion	Hindus	36	35.0	67	65.0	103	100
	Muslims	31	45.6	37	54.4	68	100
	Christians	47	37.3	79	62.7	126	100
Total		114		183		297	
Living Conditions	At Home	66	36.9	113	63.1	179	100
	In The Hostel/PG	48	40.7	70	59.3	118	100
Total		114		183		297	
Socio - Economic Conditions	Upper Middle Class	36	54.5	30	45.5	66	100
	Middle Class	77	34.4	147	65.6	224	100
	Lower Middle Class	1	14.3	6	85.7	7	100
Total		114		183		297	
At Home	Both Parents Living Together	81	37.7	134	62.3	215	100
	Single Parent	23	39.7	35	60.3	58	100
	With Relatives and Grandparents	10	41.7	14	58.3	24	100
	TOTAL	114		183		297	

Majority of the adolescents (179) are day scholars pursuing their collegiate education. As reported by them, 224 adolescents report belonging to the middle socio - economic strata of society. A majority of 215 adolescents hail from families where both the parents live together.

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Table 4 Risk factors of aggression

		Aggression					
		High Aggression		Average/Low		TOTAL	
		Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Discipline	Unreasonably strict	7	43.8	9	56.3	16	100
	Strict but reasonable	103	37.7	170	62.3	273	100
	Uninvolved	4	50.0	4	50.0	8	100
TOTAL		114		183		297	
Family Environment	Excellent	32	35.6	58	64.4	90	100
	Good	71	38.2	115	61.8	186	100
	Average	11	52.4	10	47.6	21	100
TOTAL		114		183		297	
Peers	Loving/Caring	77	37.4	129	62.6	206	100
	Aggressive/Violent	4	50.0	4	50.0	8	100
	Ordinary/Neutral	33	39.8	50	60.2	83	100
TOTAL		114		183		297	
Peers Fights	Always	2	66.7	1	33.3	3	100
	Sometimes	39	36.1	69	63.9	108	100
	Never	73	39.2	113	60.8	186	100
TOTAL		114		183		297	
Teachers	Loving	79	40.1	118	59.9	197	100
	Unreasonably Strict	3	33.3	6	66.7	9	100
	Reasonable Strict	31	35.2	57	64.8	88	100
	Aggressive/Violent	1	33.3	2	66.7	3	100
TOTAL		114		183		297	
Community	Loving/Caring	62	34.6	117	65.4	179	100
	Aggressive/Violent	3	42.9	4	57.1	7	100
	Ordinary/Neutral	49	44.1	62	55.9	111	100
TOTAL		114		183		297	
Engage Aggressive Programmes In T.V	Always	11	45.8	13	54.2	24	100
	Sometimes	77	38.3	124	61.7	201	100
	Never	26	36.1	46	63.9	72	100
TOTAL		114		183		297	
Engage in Bullying and Classmates and Neighbours	Always	2	22.2	7	77.8	9	100
	Sometimes	54	42.5	73	57.5	127	100
	Never	58	36.0	103	64.0	161	100
TOTAL		114		183		297	

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Table 4 shows 43.8% of highly aggressive adolescents and 56.3% of average/low aggressive adolescents report unreasonably strict parental discipline. 64.4% of average/low aggressive adolescents consider their family environment to be excellent whereas only 35.6% of highly aggressive adolescents feel the same about their families. A large majority of the (52.4%) highly aggressive adolescents consider their family environment to be average compared to the average/low aggressive adolescents (47.6%). 62.6% of the average/low aggressive adolescents consider their peers to be loving and caring whereas only 37.4% of the highly aggressive adolescents feel the same about their peers. 66.7% of the highly aggressive adolescents expressed that their peers always fought with them and only 33.3% of the average/low aggressive adolescents expressed so. A larger majority of the average/low aggressive adolescents (59.9%) considered their teachers to be loving compared to the highly aggressive adolescents (40.1%). Compared to their counterparts, 66.7%, 64.8% and 66.7% of the average/low aggressive adolescents considered their teachers to be more unreasonably strict, more reasonably strict and more aggressive, respectively. 57.1% of the average/low aggressive adolescents considered their community to be more aggressive and violent compared to the highly aggressive adolescents (42.9%). A higher majority of the average/low aggressive adolescents (54.2%) always engaged in aggressive TV programmes than the highly aggressive adolescents (45.8%). Surprisingly, the average/low aggressive adolescents always engaged in bullying behaviour more (77.8%) than the highly aggressive adolescents (22.2%).

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study on the risk factors of adolescent aggression revealed the presence of differences in gender and socio - economic status among aggressive late adolescents. As reported by them, many adolescents belong to the middle socio-economic strata of the society. During the period of adolescence, there are experiences of peer rejection, academic failure and lowered self-esteem. One continues to be persistently aggressive in interactions with both peers and adults and is at risk of social rejection. Arguments with parents and siblings may increase and the adolescent may develop other significant behaviour problems. To be healthy and safe, adolescents need to be equipped with skills that allow them to cope with anger in a productive manner. The nature of changes and challenges that occur simultaneously during adolescence require the development of effective coping strategies for adaptive functioning.

CONCLUSIONS

In today's society, adolescents face daily situations that contribute to their anger. A major contribution of the current study is the exploration of the association of adolescent's anger with sex and SES of a few adolescents of Mangaluru city. But the sample size was relatively small and the study was administered in Autonomous colleges only. Future research can be carried out on a large-scale sample covering different other colleges like government, private aided and private colleges. Further studies are needed to measure and investigate the components (instrumental anger, reactive anger and anger control) of anger. However, identifying and

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understanding protective factors are equally important as researching risk factors. Future studies may also wish to explore aspects of anger coping and its relationship with SES, gender and other demographic factors. It would be imperative to study and analyse the hidden causal factors of aggression, impulsivity, problems faced personally, at home or in academics as these problems would precipitate and prevent the experience of psychological well-being. Thus identification of causal factors would facilitate developing early preventive/curative interventions by mental health professionals which would ensure better mental health among the adolescent population.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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The Mediating Role of Spirituality between Self-Value and Counselling Attitudes among Nigerian Students in Malaysian Universities

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ABSTRACT

This study examined the mediating role of spirituality between self-value and counselling attitudes towards seeking professional psychological help among Nigerian students in Malaysian universities. The sample consisted of 394 Nigerian students who are currently enrolled in 10 randomly selected universities across Malaysia. They completed self-report questionnaires administered one-on-one in each of the selected institutions. It was hypothesized that there is no mediating relationship between self-value and counselling attitudes through spirituality. Two levels of quantitative research are presented: descriptive and correlational. SPSS version 22 and SEM analyses (descriptive statistics/AMOS) gave a contrary result, therefore the null hypothesis was rejected and it was concluded that spirituality mediated the relationship between self-value and counselling attitudes. Limitations in the current study, such as sample size, and directions for future studies to address the limitations are discussed.

Keywords: *Spirituality, Self-Value, Self-Worth, Self-Esteem, Counselling Attitudes, Nigerian Students.*

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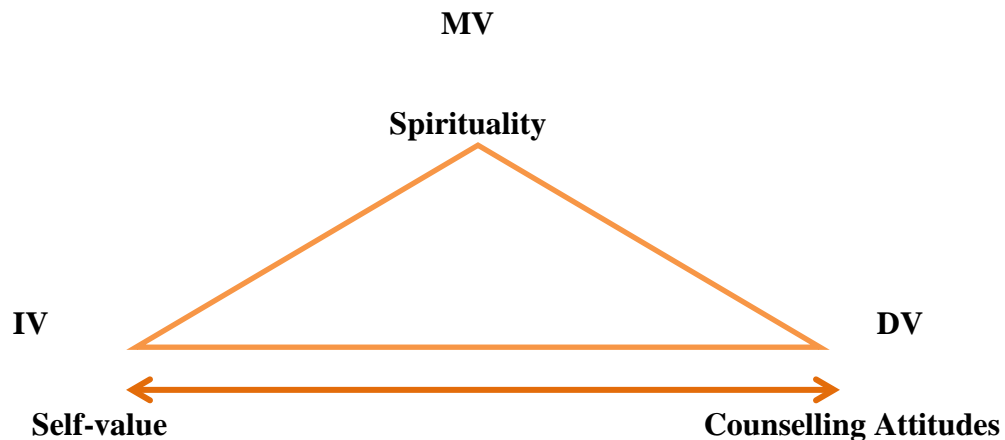


Figure i: The Conceptual framework

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This present study has chosen to examine the counselling attitudes of Nigerian students in Malaysian universities because other research findings have confirmed that past experiences and individual's upbringing plays an important role in the formation of the person's attitudes (Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Also, existing research findings in the domain of counselling psychology show that each of the two selected factors for examination in this study has a significant influence on counselling attitudes but as good as this may sound, only a relatively few studies focus on the Nigerian students in Malaysian universities; to examine how self-value, and spirituality as a mediator affect the counselling attitudes of these Nigerian students. Though few studies on help-seeking have included Nigerian students as participants (Aluede, 2008; Salami, 1998; Olutimehin, 1988; Laosebikan, 1980) but none has highlighted the counselling attitudes among Nigerian students in Malaysian universities, thereby creating the need for a study in which the findings will be entirely relevant to this population.

Aims:

The possible factor contributing to the counselling attitudes which is the focal point of this study is that many of the Nigerian students in Malaysian universities have found themselves being challenged by life outside Nigeria (Gebhard, 2012) because their perceptions and experiences of life abroad are totally contrary to their expectations, which are beyond reality (Eze, 2014). This affects these students psychologically and puts them in need of counselling.

The situational factor of the African culture and norms does not make the student in an unbearable situation overseas, to readily jump at the idea of returning home. This is because it is regarded as a thing of shame in the African culture, if you go abroad and return home empty-handed; with no visible improvement in your financial status; it is like an unwritten 'taboo' (Carling and Carretero, 2008).

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So with this conflict of values, returning home without achieving their aims of getting rich overseas is not usually considered an option by these students (Fioratta, 2015). In essence, the aspiration of some Nigerian students to make money abroad and the lack they met on getting to Malaysia, where there is a ban on employment for foreigners, is what is leading some of the students into risky behaviours earlier defined like drug-pushing, fraud (a.k.a. 419), stealing, kidnapping and becoming a prostitute or gigolo, selling their body for money in a foreign land (Tive, 2006) because these students lack positive counselling attitudes. There is an urgent calling for counselling here in the sense that the feeling of disappointment eventually diminishes their self-value and worth for life; thereby leading some of them to acts of delinquencies (Soyinka, 1990). This disillusionment in turn affects their ability to have good and positive appraisal of themselves in order to make the right and acceptable decisions and put up good attitudes that can give Nigeria a good image in the world and promote peace in host nation Malaysia.

According to the Ministry of Higher Education Malaysia (MOHEM, 2012), Nigeria is rated among the top four countries that source international students into Malaysian universities. As one of the factors pointing at low self-esteem among the Nigerian students in Malaysia, in a report revealed by the MOHEM in 2010, out of over 5,217 cases of foreign students overstaying and immigration-related offences in Malaysia between 2010 and 2013, a total of 1,579 were Nigerians. “We have recorded 40 cases of violent crimes involving Nigerian students here, and 1,003 cases involved commercial crimes”.... *“We are concerned over the involvement of Nigerians in crime here in Malaysia”* (Owoyemi, M. Y., Din, A. K. H., & Sabri, A. Z. S. A., 2015). Statistics revealed that about 400 Nigerian students are now serving jail terms in Malaysian prisons for various offences (Owoyemi et al., 2015). This obviously calls for counselling.

Similarly, Christianity and Islam are the two religions mostly embraced in Nigeria on a 50:50 level (Olaniyan and Asuelime, 2014) hence an average Nigerian student in a Malaysian university is either a Christian or a Muslim, purportedly expected to be spiritually minded as a result of their proclaimed faith in these two religions (Haynes, 2014) yet some of them keep delving into various vices and put up attitudes that are unbecoming of a true Christian or a devout Muslim. Questions may then be raised that “Has their spirituality any mediating influence on the counselling attitudes they exhibit in host nation, Malaysia? Do their self-value affect the fight for survival in them to give themselves critical appraisal, guided by positive attitudes? When in need of counselling, what is their attitude towards seeking professional psychological help? These questions concerning the counselling attitudes of the sample population mainly accounts for the motivation behind the present study and the research gaps it aims at bridging.

This problem deserves new research because there is a need to resolve the social problem of low self-value and negative counselling attitudes that is making some Nigerian students in Malaysian

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universities deviate from schooling into risky behaviours, in spite of their self-spirituality. Risky behaviour in this study is conceptualized as a lifestyle activity or a behavior that may result in a bad consequence for the Nigerian students and may prevent them from reaching their full capability and potential. The kind of behaviour which places one against one's self-value and sometimes against the norms of the society of abode.

MAIN TEXT

Spirituality

Recent researchers in the field of counselling psychology have identified the mediating role of spirituality in the relationships between constructs. Some came up with positive outcomes (Wang et al, 2008; Wallace & Lahti, 2004), some indicated partial mediation (Reutter et al, 2014; Kelly et al, 2010; Utsey et al, 2007) while some reported negatively (Davis, 2005). Other studies also examined spirituality as a predictor (Steven et al, 2012; Salsman et al, 2005; Ironson et al, 2002). Nevertheless, it is theorized in this study that spiritual attachment helps develop individuals with good attitudes toward counselling.

Spirituality can be broadly defined as things that give sense to an individual's life (Bacik, 1996) within or without the context of religion. Therefore in this research, the term spirituality refers to the close relationship between the inner-soul of one's personality, beliefs and family practices surrounding it because spirituality represents a necessary essence of life that energizes both thought and actions of human beings (Taylor, 2007).

Spirituality can be experienced within or outside formal religious institutions. There are people who are not religious and have no belief in religion but they are spiritual (Fuller, 2011). For them, spirituality entails the search for an altered state of consciousness which enables them to be aware of cosmic realities that cannot be attained in normal states of consciousness. Many foreign students are deeply spiritual even though they do not take part in congregational life because they view their spirituality as a matter between the Creator and themselves. Self-spirituality resources might include practices of prayer, meditation or traditional faith-healing rituals. Spiritual nourishment is found in diverse ways even by individuals who ruminate themselves non-religious. This study however focuses on self-spirituality with religion.

Operationally in this study, Self-spirituality is defined as the spiritual inclination of the individual students that nurtures their sense of meaning and values personally or through parental guidance from the perspectives of both the Christian and Islamic religions: like caring for the needy, putting God first in every situation and so on. Self-spirituality results in a positive attitude which is emphasized by meditation. Spiritual people tend to analyze their inner-self, working towards ensuring that their actions are pure. When people are spiritual, they view themselves as

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divine creations created in the image of God (Eck, 2014). This to them, implies that since they are created in God's image, they are perfect because God is perfect (Bible, 2011).

Self-Value

There is a mounting evidence that Self-value is one of the indispensable tools to succeed in life. It involves respecting others and feeling a sense of harmony and peace within oneself (Branden, 2011). Self-value is one of the important aspects affecting the qualities of human life in which lays the satisfaction of desire to be respected and loved (Li, 2014). It also allows for a clearly defined connection to others in any part of the world. Every human being born with different physical and socioeconomic endowments like different talents, skills and family backgrounds has a certain amount of self-respect and everyone directly or indirectly longs for acceptance by others. Although some people like to value others above themselves, nevertheless, almost nobody believes that he or she is of no value. However, self-value diminishes through devaluing others. It is difficult to build oneself with a sense of self-resentment and resentment for others (Fisher and Exline, 2010). Devaluing oneself and others creates reciprocity and resistance with people living around (Mruk, 2013).

Operationally defined in this study, the combination of self-esteem and self-worth is what constitute self-value.

Past experiences have shown that self-esteem of an individual could either be high or low. If high, the individual acts effectively and decisively and he or she holds positive self-belief which makes him/her feel authentic and true to self. When it is low, it brings negative expectations which leads to high anxiety and low effort, which in turn leads to failure and self-blame. Similarly, past research indicates that overseas students often experience a low self-value because the environment they encounter is different from what they are accustomed to. The fact that they are away from their home, family and friends and they sometimes experience language barriers (Gonzalez, 2010), coupled with various challenges and psychological distresses they go through like culture shock (Pantelidou and Craig, 2006) leaves them demoralized with low self-value.

Counselling Attitudes (towards seeking professional psychological help)

Looking at counselling as a supportive relationship that helps a person to cope with certain areas of his or her life, counselling attitudes refer to the positive or negative evaluation that an individual has towards seeking counselling help, getting enlightenment and guidance, with an aim of bringing an understanding or awareness to a matter. For the purpose of this study, the counselling attitudes focus on the attitude of the Nigerian students in Malaysian universities in seeking professional psychological help and social support.

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The current definition of Counselling put out by the British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy (BACP, 2009) says that Counselling occurs when a Counsellor and a client meets in a confidential and discreet setting to both investigate a client's problem areas, which could be an unpleasant situation they may be passing through or lack of satisfaction with life, or even loss of a sense of direction and purpose.

Similarly, Bond (2015) defines counselling as a combinatorial process between a Counsellor who is trained and educated to give assistance to a client, who is vulnerable and needs the assistance of another person, in order to get his or her bearings well. The main purpose of the interaction between them is to enable the client to cope more effectively with him/herself and the reality of his situation (Cheong and Winikoff, 2005). Counselling is also a process where the client and Counsellor work together to come up with different ideas to handle various challenges of life. A good and supportive Counsellor is expected to give little or no direct advice, because the aim of the meeting is to help the individual to arrive at a solution through counselling; and for Counselling to be effective, it cannot be forcefully administered on an individual (Truax and Carkhuff, 2007); so it is mostly at the request of the client.

The attitude towards seeking professional counselling varies among different people, some are positive among students while with some others, the attitudes are usually negative (Vogel et al., 2005). Our attitude plays a crucial role in our personality. The attitude of the sample population affects their personality as they grow, travel to other countries, face challenges and take responsibilities. Attitudes generally affect all human activities and this made Winston Churchill to say that "Attitude is a little thing that makes a big difference" (Orr et al., 2008). There are different types of attitudes (Ajzen, 2005) like Social attitude, Individualistic attitudes, Theoretical attitudes, Traditional attitudes, Utilitarian attitudes, Aesthetic attitudes and so on. The focus of this study however, is the Counselling Attitudes of Nigerian students in Malaysian universities.

Research Hypotheses

H₀₁: There are no significant mediating effects of spirituality existing between self-value and counselling attitudes among Nigerian students in Malaysian universities.

In summary, this research examines the role of self-spirituality as a mediator between self-value and counselling attitudes among Nigerian students in Malaysian universities through within the theoretical framework of the Person-Centered Counselling of Rogers (1951) which posited that every individual has a full capability for finding solutions to their own problems with the potential to fully understand them, without much intervention because they are capable of self-directed growth.

MATERIALS AND METHOD

Measures

Self-Value

In this study, self-value was measured by the Self-Value Rating Scale (SVRS) which is a two-dimensional instrument elaborated from a phenomenological conception of self-esteem and self-worth utilized in this study to collect quantitative information about the self-value of the selected sample as part of the research process.

SVRS consists of 10 items that capture the respondents' global perception of their own self-respect and self-acceptance rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 5 (Always) to 1 (never). It was adapted by the researcher from the combination of 5 items from Self-esteem Rating Scale (SERS) of Nugent & Thomas, (1993) and 5 items from the Self-Worth Quiz of Edith Cowan University in Australia (ECU, 2010), which measures self-esteem from a range area of self-evaluation including overall self-worth, social competence, problem-solving ability, intellectual ability, self-competence, and worth relative to other people. These two instruments are relevant scales of long standing reputation consisting of 40 items that provide a clinical measure on self-esteem (Nugent 2004) and 10 items that provide a psychometric measure on self-worth respectively. The items are summed to produce a total score ranging from -120 to +120. Positive scores mean more positive self-esteem and self-worth; on the other hand, negative scores indicate more negative self-esteem and self-worth.

EFA for Self-Value

To determine the factor structure among 10 items in a random sample of 200 excluded from main data set; Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was applied. Various criteria for the factorability of a correlation were used. Firstly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.843, above the suggested value of .6, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2_{45} = 625.025, p < 0.05$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all over 0.5, supporting the inclusion of each item in the factor analysis. Given these overall indicators, factor analysis was conducted with all 10 items related to Self-value items. The eigenvalues and total variance explained by the two components is presented in Table 1. The results after Varimax rotation showed that the first factor explained 33.35 % of the variance and the second factor 22.95% of the variance.

Spirituality

The Self-Spirituality Personality Inventory (SSPI) is a 5-item measure developed from the existing Universal Religious Personality Inventory (URPI) long form of 99 items developed by Azimi et al., (2012), which was considered too long for the practical purpose of capturing the only dimension of self-spirituality in this study. The five items selected from the URPI were

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selected to represent the most salient proposed dimension of self-spirituality and are considered to be the most relevant ones out of the 99 items in the long form for this aspect.

The main purpose of developing the SSPI was to determine whether the measure would be significant based on self-spirituality alone and to provide items that are pertinent and relevant to both Christianity and Islam, the two religions under focus in this study. Also it provides an opportunity to get evidence of this scale's validity and reliability. Although the original scale was 99 items long and the measure itself is a religiosity scale; yet because spirituality and religiosity are interwoven and sometimes used interchangeably according to (Ironson et al., (2002); Woods, & Ironson, (1999); Koenig et al., 1997); therefore it made it possible for some items under religiosity to be relevant for use in spirituality issues and vice-versa as it were in this case. Craigie (1999) provided a rationale for this interwoven nature of spirituality and religiosity when spirituality was defined as the inner dimension of all religious traditions that enhances an inter-religious view; hence these five selected items are relevant to self-spirituality because they directly measure the self-transcendence of the participants in this study.

For each item referring to their personal views or spiritual beliefs, respondents were asked to identify the practices that most accurately reflect their own by marking (✓) the appropriate box (from Always 5 to Never 1). The responses on the instrument were subjected to a principal components factor analysis with a varimax rotation. As it turned out, the five items fell under just one dimension of self-spirituality. The 5-items on the Self-Spirituality Personality Inventory (SSPI), together with the loadings (principal components with varimax rotation) on the factors to which each item pertains are presented in Table 1. An overall total was calculated (the sum of all the 5 items). It yielded an Alpha of 0.784. This is quite high, agreed, although there are limitations to this instrument.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for Self-Spirituality

Employing the Principal components analysis (PCA) and orthogonal method with varimax rotation, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was also performed on the spirituality instrument (SSPI), using SPSS (version 22.0). This was applied to determine the factor structure among 5 items related to spirituality subscale in a random sample of 200 excluded from main data set. Several well-known criteria for the factorability of a correlation were used. Firstly, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was 0.853, above the suggested value of .6, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi^2_{(10)} = 571.93$, $p < 0.05$). The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were all over 0.5, supporting the inclusion of each item in the factor analysis. Given these overall indicators, factor analysis was conducted with all 5 items related to spirituality items. One factor with eigenvalues greater than 1 was found with loading factors above 0.5. The eigenvalues and total variance explained by these components is presented in Table 2. The results showed that the only one factor explained 70.1 % of the variance.

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Counselling Attitudes

Counselling Attitude was measured by the Attitudes toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help (ATSPPH-SF) Likert-type Scale of 5-1 of Always to Never respectively was adopted. It comprised of 10 items on counselling attitudes; based on four different dimensions namely: Recognition of Personal Need for Professional Help; Tolerance of Stigma Associated with Psychological Help; Interpersonal Openness; and Confidence in helpers. Scores are computed for each dimension. Positive attitudes toward seeking psychological help from professionals are represented by high scores on the ATSPPH. Four of the items are reverse scored, and higher overall scores are reflective of more favorable attitudes. Fischer and Farina (1995) reported psychometric properties of the shortened version including a correlation of .87 between scores from this instrument and the original form. The one-month test-retest reliability coefficient was .80 and the coefficient alpha was .84.

Population of the Study

The population is the totality of the elements under study, which in this research comprises of Nigerian students in Malaysian universities. The researcher's choice of using Nigerian students in Malaysian universities for this study predicated upon some cogent reasons, which are: The massive population of Nigerian citizens in Malaysia (approximately 10,000) in comparison with other nations of the world, as well as the ratio in comparison to the entire population of host nation, Malaysia (approximately 30 million in 2014). The population of this study includes the Nigerian students who are currently enrolled in any of the following Malaysian universities listed below in the location of the study

Location of the Study

Location of the study is West Malaysia. 10 universities were randomly selected from the number of universities in Malaysia. These are both private and public universities Universiti Malaya (UM), Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) and Universiti Teknologi Malaysia (UTM), Limkokwing University, Financial Technical and Management School (FTMS), UCSI University, INTI University, Linton University, Taylor's University, and IUKL.

Sample Size

As at 1st October, 2015, from the available records at the Nigerian High Commission, there are approximately 8,000 Nigerian students in Malaysian universities across the nation. A sampling size of 394 students was systematically drawn from the population of Nigerian students in ten different universities in Malaysia For a categorical data like this, a sample size of 367 is recommended by Kotrlik et al., (2001).

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Instrumentation

Questionnaire was adopted as a research instrument in this study. The self-administered questionnaire was given to the respondent one-on-one. The respondents who participated in the research were given an ample time to respond to the items in the questionnaire to avoid inaccuracies and errors in their answers. The primary data were derived from the answers that the respondents gave in the self-administered questionnaire based on the Self-Value Rating Scale (SVRS), Self-Spirituality Personality Inventory (SSPI) and the Attitude Towards Seeking Professional Psychological Help (ATSPPH-SF) by Fischer and Farina (1995).

Sampling Procedures

The characteristics of the sample are expected to be the same with those of the population because it was selected with appropriate sampling technique. As such, a multistage cluster sampling technique was adopted. In the case of this study, cluster and random sampling was applied to get equal representations from the lists of students in the sampling frame obtained from the various schools selected as a complement to the list obtained from the Nigeria High Commission in Kuala Lumpur.

Research Design

This present study was conducted as a within-subject design, using a combination of descriptive quantitative and correlational research design in order to facilitate the discovery of measurable information and it also permits the inferences needed to examine the hypothesis and provide estimates in answer to the questions. The self-administered questionnaire was given to the respondent one-on-one. The respondents who participated in the research were given an ample time to respond to the items in the questionnaire to avoid inaccuracies and errors in their answers.

RESULTS

The mediation effect of Spirituality was assessed by using bootstrapping method for the path analysis. For the mediation result, if the direct score of the analysis is significant and the indirect with a mediator is also significant then the result is a partial mediation. If the direct score is significant but the indirect with a mediator is not significant, then the result is no mediation; but if the direct is not significant but the indirect with a mediator is significant, then the result is a full mediation. Both direct and indirect effects of self-value on counselling attitudes were significant which means that the effect of self-value on counselling attitudes was partially mediated by Spirituality.

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Table i: Path Analysis result on the Hypothesis

Alternative Hypothesis	Path	B	P-value	Empirical evidence
H₁ : Self-spirituality mediated the relationship between self-value and counselling attitudes.	SV ----->SP---> CA	0.057	0.022	Supported

According to the results of path model after mediation self-value showed significant and positive effect on counselling attitudes after mediation (B=0.155, p<0.001). The effect of self-spirituality on counselling attitudes was significant and positive (B=0.082, p=0.002).

Table ii: Test of the total effects of Self-Value on Counselling Attitudes(with Mediator)

Path			B	β	S.E.	C.R.	P
SP	<---	SV	0.36	0.269	0.104	3.471	<0.001
CA	<---	SV	0.155	0.298	0.047	3.332	<0.001
CA	<---	SP	0.082	0.212	0.027	3.034	0.002

SV: Self-value, SP: Self-Spirituality, PA: Parental Attachment, PEA: Peers Attachment, CA: Counselling Attitudes

DISCUSSION

H₀₁: Self-spirituality does not mediate the relationships between self-value and counselling attitudes among Nigerian students in Malaysian universities.

The hypothesis stated that spirituality does not mediate the relationships between self-value and counselling attitudes. Using the bootstrapping method, the findings of this study showed a partial mediation because the direct and indirect effects are significant ($\beta = 0.057$, $p=0.022$) as seen in table 4.14. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected hence the study concluded that indeed spirituality does mediate the relationships between self-value and counselling attitudes among Nigerian students in Malaysian universities. This result also uniformly aligns with existing literature. Frame, (2003) noted that one of the key fields of counselling is the field of addiction, which is often open to integration, spirituality and counselling.

This implication of the findings of this study on the Nigerian students in focus is that they could attain a high and positive self-value and have positive counselling attitudes if they are true to the religion they profess and pay good attention the their spiritual well-being. Spiritual beliefs and practices are salient in the conceptualization of well-being among Nigerian students in Malaysia. In connection with the sample population, the central importance of faith and spiritual practices e.g. prayer and spiritual counselling either through self - spirituality among Nigerian students may promote self-esteem, psychological well-being and positive counselling attitudes during

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times of distress, grief and adversity. For instance, in studying south Asian immigrant families in coping responses after 9/11 terrorist attack, Cadge and Ecklund (2006) reported that spirituality was endorsed by the families as a cradle of strength and resilience for dealing with the loss of a loved one. Spirituality is generally viewed as a protective factor against suicide.

In relation to the instrument used to measure the self-concept, self-value is seen as relationship to other people as well as the self. It is one personal characteristic (a self-construct) that enable individuals to have a positive view of themselves in any situation they are (Mruk, 2013). In other words, a person with high self-value has a realistic view of himself and his worth which makes his or her comportment to be within the scope of societal norms (Mruk, 2013). While a person with low self-value behaves like he or she is worthless because that is the inner believe. It is this erroneous believe of inadequacy in oneself that makes an individual feel that other people would not like him or her. The feeling then makes the person to trust the competence of others more while having low opinion of himself; not realizing that nobody holds a good opinion of a man who holds a low opinion of himself (Trollope, 2015). This can also lead to nervous feelings when with strangers because the person believes that he or she might appear stupid to them.

A person with a high self-value holds the belief in the capacity to succeed at tasks thereby counting on him or herself to manage things well; while the person with low self-value behaves in ways others expected because of fear of being judged. This is contrary to Sheff (2015) who opined that as long as you look for someone else to validate who you are, by seeking their approval; you are setting yourself for disaster. Some individuals even find it difficult to accept who they are and always wish to be like other people; on this, Monroe (2015) remarked that it is a waste of the person you are created to be if you want to be someone else. It has also been argued by Vanzant (2015) that everything that happens to an individual is a reflection of what the person believes about himself. As explained earlier in the conceptual definition, self-value for the purpose of this study is being considered through two major sub-headings namely self-esteem and self-worth.

CONCLUSION

Several factors explored in this study through the self-administered questionnaire based on the three relevant instruments significantly predicted the mediating role of spirituality between self-value and counselling attitudes of the sample population. On the basis of the data gathered in relation to the statement of the problem and the objective, the most salient findings of this study is based on the data collected from 394 Nigerian students between the ages of 15 to 55 years, in ten Malaysian universities. SPSS and AMOS/SEM version 22 is used to analyze the entire data. Findings of the study based on the objectives, revealed that the null hypotheses tested, was rejected and it is concluded that there are significant mediating effects of spirituality existing between self-value and counselling attitudes among Nigerian students in Malaysian universities.

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This finding is consistent with majority of the investigations carried out earlier on the subject of self-value, spirituality and attitudes (Luquis et al., 2012; Berterö, 2002; Piedmont, 2001). For instance, Verplanken & Holland (2002) in their research concluded that when values are cognitively activated and central to the self, they give meaning to, energize, and regulate value-congruent behavior. The theoretical implication of this study is that spirituality has a significant mediating impact on the relationships between self-value and counselling as seen through the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analyses. This has contributed to existing understanding of the concept of self and the role of spirituality and its impact on counselling attitude in support of existing literature by Verplanken & Holland (2002).

Ethical issues that arose while conducting the research came up in the area of the instruments. Two out of the three instruments combined to form the questionnaire used in this study were adapted from 2 major existing instruments. These are Self-Value Rating Scale (SVRS) adapted from Self-esteem rating scale (SERS) of Nugent (1993) and Self-Spirituality Personality Inventory (SSPI) adapted from Universal Religious Personality Inventory (URPI) of Azimi et al., (2012). According to Suskie (2010), a perfectly valid questionnaire must measure in such a way that allows an entirely accurate inferences to be drawn from it; making sure that each item is interpreted in the intended way; clear and easily understood with an intuitive relationship to the study's topic and objectives., and the intention behind each item is self-explanatorily clear to anyone knowledgeable about the topic. Reliability and validity are confirmed when the researcher takes precautionary steps like getting people with diverse backgrounds and viewpoints review the survey before administering it.

In order to establish the content validity, the selected items for the self-spirituality measure were sent to four content validity experts and two of the authors that developed the URPI (the mother instrument) for validation. There was a consensus from them all on the fact that the questions are representative of those that could be asked to evaluate self-spirituality of the sample population. A pilot study was also carried out in order to get feedback for refinement of the instrument. The concurrent validity was even tested by administering the instrument twice; though not on the same sample. The five items were subjected to a reliability analysis that yielded an alpha reliability coefficient of 0.853, 0.863, 0.863, 0.767, and 0.836, respectively.

Similarly, in the on-going process of validating the newly adapted Self-Value Rating Scale (SVRS) for use, the researcher took certain precautionary steps in order to certify the face, content and construct validities by giving copies of the scale to four content validity experts in three different universities namely University Malaya, University of Ibadan, Nigeria and the head of department of Counsellor Education and Counselling Psychology, University Putra Malaysia; who studied them, and confirmed that they were good enough to measure what they intend to measure. Having read the items of the scales and confirmed that they actually measured

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the variables of the study. A pilot study was also carried out to establish the content validity, test reliability and to explore the underlying dimensions of the SSPI. In this case, Cronbach's alpha is employed to assess the reliability index and it yielded .0820 for self-esteem and 0.855 for self-worth respectively. Accordingly, Principle Components Analysis is employed to explore the underlying dimensions of Self-Esteem and Self-Worth. SERS (the mother of SVRS) equally has an excellent reliability rating. Its internal consistency has an alpha of 0.97 and it is reported to be indicative of non-problematic attitudes (Fischer & Corcoran, 2007b; Nugent, 2004). Details of the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) carried out for the two instruments are included in this article.

However, the limitations of the study are noteworthy. The very first and obvious limitation is the fact that a remarkably small number of only 5 items were selected to form the SSPI instrument out of the 99 items in the URPI as a result of practical considerations. It is remarkably possible that the gamut of the other dimensions of the complex concept of spirituality/religiosity have not been covered. Definitely, more dimensions are likely to be discovered if a large enough sample is obtained and the full 99 items are administered. Although sometimes the short form of an instrument does not reduce the dimensions and relevance of the measure as it was in the case of the Attitudes towards seeking professional psychological help instrument ATSPPH-SF by Fischer and Farina, (1995).

Secondly, the scope of the study focuses mainly on Nigerian students who are currently enrolled in any of the ten randomly selected universities for the study. Only ten out of the officially recognized seventy universities in Malaysia were involved due to logistics problems. However, the strength of the study lies in the fact that the results are very valid because the data was collected one-on-one. Secondly, it is the first of its kind on the counselling attitudes of Nigerian students in Malaysian universities. Further studies could be carried out on the sample population in other nations around the world, based on this foundation.

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A Comparative Study of Mental Health of Normal and Visually Challenged Adolescents

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ABSTRACT

Health is a state of complete physical, mental and social well-being and absence of disease. According to world health organization (WHO) mental health is a form of well-being where a person can recognize his / her own power, can overcome their daily stressful life and able to contribute his or her own society. Adolescence is a developmental period characterized by many hormonal changes, brain, and physical development, emotional and behavioral development. Mentally healthy children and adolescents enjoy their lives positively; they function well at home, school and their community. While visually impaired (absence of visual ability or loss of perception of visual stimuli) adolescents experience severe psychological and behavioral problems especially during adolescent period. The objective of the present study is to compare the normal and visually challenged adolescents in terms of mental health. For measuring the mental health of both groups well-being scale (WEMWBS) was administered. The data was collected from blind school (Ahmadi school) and Aligarh Public School (N=100). For the statistical analysis t test was used. The result of this study revealed that there was a significant difference between both the groups of normal and visually challenged adolescents on mental health.

Keywords: *Mental Health, Adolescent, Visually Impaired.*

According to WHO (2007) Mental health is not just the absence of mental disorder. The definition of mental health highlights emotional well-being, ability to live a full and meaningful life, and the flexibility to deal with life's inevitable challenges. According to the psycho-social observation, health is much more than the absence of disease. A person who has no disease is not ill, but they can't be mentally healthy until all the dimensions are not completed, i.e. biological, psychological and social factors, all these factors will be included when we talk about mental health. In the context of positive psychology, mental health includes an individual's life

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fulfilled through joy and happiness, and it maintains the balance between life activities and efforts to achieve psychological resilience. Moreover, people who are mentally healthy can deal difficult situation in a better manner (Smith and Segel, 2011). According to the WHO, child's mental or behavioural disorder will rise and become one of the five most common causes of morbidity, mortality, and disability among children by the year 2020 (WHO, 2001). As part of one's overall health, mental and emotional health or well-being is an essential condition to enable one to control one's life successfully. *UNICEF (2011) report estimate that around 20 percentage of the world's adolescence have a mental health or behavior problems. Keyes and (2002, 2005) and Huppert and Whittington (2003) carried out an empirical study for the independent of positive and negative well-being, they reported that mental disorders are not opposite ends of a single field rather it incorporates distinct, though correlated, axes. Keyes (2005) carried out a data from the MIDUS (midlife in united states) study in USA, it showed that 50% of the population are moderately mentally healthy, 17% are flourishing, 10% are languishing and remain 23% of population diagnosed mental disorders such as depression.*

WHO defines "adolescence is the period of human growth and development that start after childhood from 10 to 19 years". This is a stage where they try to find out their own identity and can form social interaction with others. Here all the psychological and bodily development occurs. The huge biological changes that occur in the brain are in frontal lobe that is responsible for the decision making, planning (Begley, 2000).

It is a time between childhood to adulthood that involves biological, cognitive and social-emotional changes. Moreover, many adolescents seem in the form of passive role (Hall, 1904).

Visually challenged

Visual impairment also known as vision loss or vision deficiency, this impairment leads to a person to cannot see any object to a degree that cause a problems not fixable by usual means, such as glasses. Due to vision loss people have difficulty with their daily normal life such as reading, walking and driving etc. As of 2012 report there were 285 million people those were visually challenged of which 246 million had low vision and 39 million were blind. The National Assistance Act 1948 states that a person can be certified as severely sighted impaired if they are "so blind as to be unable to accomplish any task for which eyes are needed. The term blindness is used for complete or nearly complete vision loss (Marberley et al. 2006). Sharma (1998) found that visually challenged was frustrated when compared with their sighted counterparts. Secondly visual disabled perform to be inferior so their study involvement was concerned. Visually challenged had feelings of dependence and helpless, they needed special attention when entering in the stage of adolescence. Studies reported that visually impaired had experience severe psychological and behavioral problems, specifically during adolescence period. Wong et al (2009) investigated the impact of visual impairment on quality of life in a study of 1249 adolescents aged between 11 to 18th years showed that the levels of psychological and school

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functionality are significantly low. Jan et al (1977) reported that 57% children with visual impairment have psychiatric disorder including diagnosis of adjustment disorder, conduct disorder and personality disorder. Fisher et al (1991) examine that in every social situation, the person who is having disabilities their thoughts and feelings were found more negative in comparison to normal one. Even other studies reveal that blind people have some extra sensory perception, Zehran (1965) find out that blind children possess the same personality characteristics as well as sighted one. Tillman and Osborne (1969) observed that blind children were superior on repetition of number indicating short term memory and attention.

Issues of adolescence:

The major issue of adolescence is forming their own identity (Erikson, 1998). Erikson said that adolescent experience a life crisis of 'ego identity' verses 'role diffusion'. Ego identity is an attitude in which individual seeks 'who one is' and 'what for their existence' moreover those adolescents who do not develop ego identity may have experience role conflict that lead toward anxiety and depression. Adolescents period can cause a great deal of anxiety for the visually challenged person, they not only face the usual developmental challenges but also the added strain of his or her physical handicap. Many studies have predicted the increment of vulnerability and difficulty arising during the development of children and adolescent with visual impairment.

Objectives of the study

1. To compare visually challenged and normal adolescents on mental health.
2. To compare visually challenged girls and boys on mental health.
3. To compare visually challenged girls and normal sighted girls on mental health.
4. To compare visually challenged boys and normal sighted boys on mental health.

Hypotheses:

Alternate hypotheses were formulated.

H01 - Visually challenged and normal adolescents will differ significantly on mental health.

H2- Visually challenged girls and boys will differ significantly on mental health.

H3- Visually challenged girls and normal girls will differ significantly on mental health.

H4- Visually challenged boys and normal boys will differ significantly on mental health.

METHOD

Participants

The total sample size was 100 adolescents age range 12 to 18 years. They were divided into two groups 50 of them normal sighted from Aligarh public school and 50 of them visually challenged from Ahmadi blind school Aligarh.

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Measures

Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale was developed by Joseph, Tennant, Parkinson, and Stewart- Brown, (2007), this measure was used to assess the mental health of the adolescents. It's a 5-point Likert scale consisted of 14 items ranging from 1 (none of time) to 5 (all of the time) the total score obtains by adding of score on all item. The reliability of the scale was .84 and test retest reliability was 0.83.

Procedure

First of all, permission was taken from the chairperson of the school from the both groups of participants. The data were collected individually. Before administrating the questionnaires purpose of the study was introduced to the group with the collaboration of school teacher. After the interaction with adolescents' rapport was established with them and normal adolescents were asked to read the given instruction carefully. Now they were requested to not leave any item without answering. Participants were given ample amount of time to complete the questionnaire properly. In the case of participants who were visually challenged they were also given same instruction and rapport was form with them. Here the questionnaire was instructed verbally with each items with option. When the both groups had completed their task thanks were given to them.

Ethical issues

Participants agreement was taken before administering the questionnaires, only those participants were selected who were willingly to cooperate in the study.

Variable

- Independent variable (gender or Male/Female).
- Dependent variable (mental well-being).

Statistical Analyses

The data were analyzed by using of Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 16. The mean of visually challenged group was compared to normal sighted group. Independent 't' test was administered for analyzing the significance of difference between two groups.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Table no. 1 showing the significance of difference between normal and visually challenged adolescents.

Variable	Participants	Mean	N	SD	Df	t	Level of sig
Mental well-being	Normal	47.72	50	8.748	98	3.452	P< .01 (significant)
	Visually challenged	56.42	50	7.326			

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The level of statistical significance is often expressed in terms of probability value (p). The data was analyzed statistically by using SPSS, and Mean, SD; t values (tabulated value) were computed. If p value is less than the t value, then there will be significant differences between two groups.

Table no 1 shows the score of visually challenged group (Mean= 56.42, SD=7.326) and normal group (Mean= 47.72, SD=8.748) respectively. The t-value was greater than p value, so it can be said that there was significant difference ($p < .01$, $t = 3.452$) between normal sighted and visually challenged adolescents. The mean value of mental well-being of the visually challenged adolescents was significantly higher than normal adolescents. Thus, higher mean value of visually challenged showed that they were more positive about their mental well-being than normal sighted adolescents. The reason for this significant difference can be that, visually challenged were more positive about their life as they received a lot of care and guidance from their care taker.

Table no. 2 showing the significance of difference between visually challenged girls & boys.

Variable	Participants	Mean	N	SD	Df	t	Level of sig
Mental well-being	Girls (V.C.)	60.48	25	6.571	48	3.943	$P < .01$ (significant)
	Boys (V.C)	52.36	25	7.926			

Note: Visually challenged (V.C.)

Table 2 revealed that the score obtained by visually challenged girls were higher (Mean= 60.48, SD= 6.571) as compared to score obtained by visually challenged boys (Mean= 52.36, SD=7.926). The t value ($t=3.943$, $p < .01$) was found greater than p value at the point of significance level (.01). So it showed the significance of difference between visually challenged girls and boys. The result revealed that visually challenged girls were having better mental health as compared to visually challenged boys, which can be seen from the mean score of visually challenged girls. In this study girls were found more optimistic about their futures and received high affection from others than boys due to which their mental well-being was found significantly higher as compared to boys. The majority of adolescents with visually challenge have reported that they are gratified with support, however some studies have revealed that they did not found adequate social support (Anderson et al 1982, Nemskick et al 1986, Chang and Schaller 2000). Kef (1999) conducted a study, he said that girls with visual impairment report more peer support than boys.

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Table no. 3 showing the significance of difference between normal boys & visually challenged boys.

Variable	Participants	Mean	N	SD	Df	t	Level of sig
Mental well-being	Normal boys	48.00	25	8.751	48	-.846	P>.01 (insignificant)
	Visually challenged boys	52.36	25	7.926			

Table no-3 explained the score of the normal boys (Mean=48.00, SD=8.751) and score of visually challenged boys (Mean=52.36, SD= 7.926), above finding revealed that the mean score of visually challenged boys were to some extent higher as compared to normal boys. The t value was found insignificant at 0.01 level ($t = .846$, $p > .01$). It means that there was no significance difference between both the groups. Thus, visually challenged boys and normal sighted boys had equal mental well-being. Study conducted by Huurre and Aro (1997) indicated that adolescents with visual challenged were similar to their peers group in psychological well-being.

Table no. 4 showing the significance of difference between normal girls & visually challenged girls.

Variable	Participants	Mean	N	SD	Df	t	Level of sig
Mental well-being	Normal girls	47.44	25	9.242	48	-5.749	P< .01 (significant)
	Visually challenged girls	60.48	25	6.571			

The mean value, SD, and their level of significant can be seen from table no 4, for normal and visually challenged girls. The score obtained by normal girls was found lower (Mean=47.44, SD=9.242) than the score of visually challenged girls (Mean=60.48, SD= 6.571). The mean value of the visually challenged girls significantly higher as compared to normal girls. The t value was found significant at .01 level ($t = 5.75$, $p < .01$), it predicted that there was a significant difference between these two groups. The visually challenged girls were found to have better mental well-being. The reason for this significant difference can be that visually challenged girls were living in a highly protective and caring environment due to which they do not face many issues which normal girls faced and thus improving their mental well-being.

CONCLUSION

The obtain score of visually challenged group (Mean=56.42, SD=7.326) was compared to normal group (Mean= 47.72, SD= 8.748), showed that difference between these two groups. In our study visually challenged group was found more mentally healthy as compared to sighted

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group, because they are living in a peaceful environment, and are not bothering by people as normal sighted are facing. They all have found extra care and social support from other and peer's groups, every adolescents looking happy and have self-faith that they can do any-thing. Therefore, every adolescent has needed social support, responsible decision making, positive attitude and have social collaboration skill, these kind of things may develop their mental health status and also **prevention programming lead toward development**. Our study was supported by Kef and Devkovic (2004), Koenes, Karshmer (2000), they said that welfare can be positively affected by physical well-being, strong friendship and family network, encouragement by adults toward independent. Thus if appropriate support given by parents, teachers and other significant people to the individual who are visually challenged can also be altered toward healthy future which latter adds to developing healthy personality and multi-faceted development in life. Adolescence mental health plays a dynamic role in each phase of life and deprived of mental health can lead to decrement of any performance in his/her life.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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Effectiveness of De-Stressful Skills Training On Reducing the Distress of Women Infected by Breast Cancer

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Mohamad Esmaeil Akbari⁴

ABSTRACT

Any changes in human's life is along with stress, as well as diagnosis of cancer occurs the unique distress for the patient. The objective of the extant paper is determining the effectiveness of training the skills of confronting the stress for reducing the distress of women infected by breast cancer. Therefore, 23 women infected by breast cancer referring to Shohada Hospital of Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences in Tehran by means of convenience and random sampling in two test (12 samples) and control (11 samples) groups. All examinees were evaluated firstly as respect to the distress rate by means of Kessler's distress assessment scale (K10), then de-stressing manner was trained to the test group during 8 sessions each one 90 minute. Control group has received any intermediation. The results of analysis of covariance of distress scores indicated that training stressful skills is effective on reducing the distress of women infected by breast cancer.

Keywords: *De-Stressful Skills Training, Women, Breast Cancer*

Breast cancer is one of the prevalent diseases in Iran and the world. Some statistics imply that out of 8 women, one person has the chance of infecting by this disease. As per the report of Akbari (2006), every year 1063 persons lose their life due to catching to this disease. Although the existing advances for treating this disease has upraised the lifetime from 75% in 1970s to 87% in 1990, but yet these patients are involved in complications such as pain and distress.

Diagnosing and exposing to treatments related to breast cancer may incur a lot of stress directly and indirectly on the infected person. This stress according to the description of Sile (1946)

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creates a warning reaction at the first stage that is an automatic response and the person has no considerable conscious control thereon. In continue, this body process attempts by resistance to return to its balance and relaxation and if this resistance doesn't return the balance and relaxation they will be involved in exhaustion and distress. This distress causes the weakness of immune system in a deficient revolving reaction and provides the changeability of early disease to the advancer status. The distress that includes the extensive concept of proprietary symptoms such as concern on disease and reduction of health, depression, anxiety, anger, sleep disorders, reduction of appetite, focusing disorders and sense distress along with fear from inability and death has a lot effect on disease and patient's life.

While revising distress occurrence it is observed that diagnosing cancer due to the implied meanings of this diagnosis in the patient & family's mind such as probability of deformity, pain, financial and social problems, disruption of family structure, death and some real events results in some deep emotional and exciting problems for the patient and his family. Fearing from relapse, beginning of treatment, accepting painful medicinal treatments, waiting for test results, combating against uncontrollable pains, pain, reduction of social activities and inability, radiotherapy and chemotherapy make these patients more distressful and limit the perception of their ability for coordinating the life conditions with the existing stress as a situation out of tolerance, such conditions reduce the patient's health feeling and effectiveness of individuals effective on their improvement. Upon increasing the depression and anxiety, lack of enjoy feeling, taking distance from friends or family, lack of motivation and failure bearing, reduction of sexual desire, increasing or decreasing appetite and weight, reduction of energy and premature fatigue, sleep disorder become incident, in other word, the resistance force is weakened against tumor and again the distress including anxiety, depression and fear become more acute. Due to this revolving reaction, the researches show that within 50 to 85% of patients infected by cancer suffer from a psychiatric disorder concurrently.

The distress requires the immediate management in order to avoid the patient's problems not to become more complicated. As Bridin, Canner, Chrichnazami & Plant (1999) have reported, any action for reducing the distress rate will have very important effect on the improvement of enormous amount of symptoms and signs resulted from cancer and controlling actions. Sometimes, the patient's distress leads the patient towards choosing uncommon treatment methods and as a result postponing the main treatments. Thus, treating the distress is a part of patient's main treatment that should be commenced since the same first stage and to be continued until the end of treatment.

The researches indicate that psychological interventions may reduce the emotional distress of these patients including anxiety, fear, concern and anger and improve the quality of their life and self-esteem and increase their immune system and satisfaction with life. Whist, the studies show

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that self-supposing thought, cognitive mistakes, training level, and aiming based on concern and anxiety have considerable role in occurrence of psychological problems of these patients and coping and confronting based on negative excitement increase the distress of whom infected by breast cancer, it seems if the cognitive ability of patients infected by cancer is increased and learn them some methods to how avoid from meditating about stressful subjects and how reduce their emotional turmoil level, their psychological distress of these patients may be reduced successfully.

Altogether, it seems the cancerous patients need to express their feelings, receive their required protection and learn the required coping skills. In this study, it is attempted to reduce the distress resulted from breast cancer of patients by training the de-stressful skills such as relaxation by deep breaths, learning the focus on present, changing the intellectual forms and replacing the positive inner whispers instead of negative inner whispers, avoiding from disaster-making, sympathy and attracting social protections, laughing and walking.

Procedure:

The extant quasi-experimental study has been applied as a pretest-posttest design by the control group. The studied statistical population of this study is consisted of women infected by breast cancer referring to Shohada Hospital of Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences within the age range of 20-65 and educational lever higher than middle school diploma. Out of this population, 23 persons were selected via random convenience sampling and were divided in two test (12 persons) and control (11 persons) groups randomly. The conditions for admitting treatment included passing at least 3 months after chemotherapy, having at least middle school diploma, lack of relapse and lack of using psychiatric drugs and conditions for exiting from study is not passing 3 months after chemotherapy, literacy less than middle school diploma, relapse and using psychiatric drugs. For observing the moral codes of all examinees of treatment process, the treatment period of the informed and written satisfaction of individuals for admitting in the research were obtained.

The control group was told to wait for the beginning the course as the waiting group for one month. After completion of course, training method was applied for them.

The de-stressing skills including deep breathing, consciousness, thinking styles, sympathy, problem solving, establishing communication, social protection, laugh and walking were trained to the test group twice per week, each session 90min, and for one month. The both groups before beginning the intermediations and after 8 sessions were assessed aiding Kessler's distress assessment scale (K10).

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For collecting data, Kessler psychological distress assessment scale 10 (K10) was used. This scale that has been designed for identification of distress rate of the publics during the recent month has been introduced by Kessler (2003). This scale has been compiled by Kessler et al in 2002 as a 10 item scale. The questions answer had 5 options (ever, most times, sometimes, rarely and never) and each answer is scored between 0 to 4. Forokava (2003) has confirmed the validity of K10 for diagnosing the mood and anxiety disorders. Fessart (2009) has reported the reliability of this test by Cronbach's alpha coefficient equal to 0.93. Donker (2010) has reported the reliability of this test equal to 0.93 and declared that the high scores in this scale have close relationship with diagnostic scores of major depression, anxiety, social phobia, phobia disorder, and agoraphobia. This scale of Vaziri & Lotfi Kashani (2011) in a survey study have reported the reliability of Kessler scale K10 by Cronbach's alpha coefficient equal to 0.93 and correlation between the scores of this scale by means of GHQ28 equal to 0.83.

In this study, test group were trained by de-stressing skills. This treatment program has been drafted by Vaziri & Lotfi Kashani based on the available backgrounds and management methods and confronting stress considering the needs of patients infected by breast cancer. This package has been executed as 8 sessions each 90min. in table 1, the applied intermediation plan has been reported for each session separately.

Table 1: De-stressing plan for the patients infected by breast cancer for each session separately:

First session	Familiarizing the group member to each other and psychotherapist, familiarizing the group members to the regulations of group therapy, introduction to stress, training the relaxation by deep breathing, presenting practice, requesting for relaxation by breathing in middle of therapy sessions as the practice
Second session	Examining the practice results of first session, explaining the importance of being at present and life in present time and its effects in psychological status, practicing consciousness as the method for being in present, requesting for relaxation practice by breathing and consciousness in middle of therapy sessions as the practice
Third session	Examining the results of second session practice, explaining the importance of laughing and joy, practicing laugh, requesting for relaxation by breathing and consciousness and laugh in middle of therapy sessions as the practice
Fourth session	Examining the results of third session practices, explaining the importance of thought and beliefs based on the disaster-making, practicing the change in intellectual form and replacing positive inner whispers instead of negative inner whispers, requesting for practicing relaxation by breathing, replacing the positive inner whispers instead of negative inner whispers, consciousness and laugh in middle of therapy sessions as the practice

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Fifth session	Examining the results of fourth session practices, familiarizing the individuals to the effects of social protection and its role in psychological status, practicing the attraction of social protection and foundation of assistance group and admitting the close members and spouses therein, requesting for practicing relaxation by breathing, replacing the positive inner whispers instead of negative inner whispers, consciousness and laugh along with practice of attracting the social protection in middle of therapy sessions as the practice
Sixth session	Examining the results of fifth session practice, explaining the importance of walking, requesting for relaxation by breathing, replacing the positive inner whispers instead of negative inner whispers, consciousness and laugh, attracting the social protection and walking in middle of therapy sessions as the practice
Seventh session	Examining the results of relaxation by breathing, replacing the positive inner whispers instead of negative inner whispers, consciousness and laugh, attracting the social protection and walking in middle of therapy sessions and explaining the individual experiences
Eighth session	Examining the results of relaxation by breathing, replacing the positive inner whispers instead of negative inner whispers, consciousness and laugh, attracting the social protection and walking in middle of therapy sessions and explaining the individual experiences, completing the therapy and requesting the group to control and protect each other for dealing with daily practices and holding regular group sessions.

Whereas in this research, pretest-posttest method with control group has been applied and considering the confirmation and normality of scores distribution by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and variance homogeneity by Lone test and confirming the regression gradient homogeneity, analysis of variance was used and the data was analyzed by applying SPSS software version 16.

FINDINGS

The findings indicate that 10 persons (43.3%) had educational level under high school diploma, 8 persons (34.5%) high school diploma, 3 persons (13.05) associate's degree and only 2 persons had bachelor's degree or higher educations. 20 persons (87.4%) of the participators in this research were married and 3 persons (12.6%) were single. In table 2, the descriptive elements, the scores of test and control groups' distress in pretest and posttest are presented (table 2).

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Table 2: Descriptive elements of scores of test and control groups' examinees in distress scale for pretest and posttest separately

	Groups	Number	Mean value	Standard deviation	Confidence level of 95%	
Pretest	Test	12	27.00	2.594	25.35	28.65
	Control	11	24.73	6.310	20.49	28.97
	Total	23	25.91	4.776	23.85	27.98
Posttest	Test	12	17.75	1.138	17.03	18.47
	Control	11	22.36	6.680	17.76	28.97
	Total	23	19.96	5.253	17.69	22.23

Analysis of covariance has been provided for specifying if the applied procedure has had effective significant effect on distress posttest scores or not. Normality and uniformity of dependent variable variance was confirmed by Lone test ($F=3.929$, $df=1, 21$, $p=0.061$). Examining the regression homogeneity indicates that the interaction between conditions and pretest is not significant, consequently, the data protects the homogeneity of regression gradients. Analysis of regression chart's graphic confirms as well as the linear relationship between the auxiliary random variable and dependent variable.

Table 3: Summary of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) for reviewing the effect of intervention on distress of women infected by breast cancer

Change resource	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.	PES	OP
Pretest	249.292	1	249.292	21.171	0.001	0.514	0.992
Main effect of groups	211.956	1	211.958	18	0.001	0.474	0.981
Remained error	235.503	20	11.775				

As it is observed in table 3, summary of analysis of variance indicates that by eliminating the effect of pretest scores, the main effect of intervention on scores of distress posttest for women infected by breast cancer is significant ($F=18, 1, 20$, $p<0.001$, $\text{partial}\eta^2=0.981$).

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Many of diseases are in connection with stress and whatever the stress is more severe and longer will provide more negative psychological and physiological complications. It seems, the life's stressful occurrences in addition to increasing the probability of infection by different diseases are effective on severity or trend of disease. This effect in relation to cancer types has been considered somewhat. Diagnosis of cancer incurs considerable and extraordinary stress on the individual and threatens his life. Upon continuation of stress and finishing the individual's power for resistance against stress, the individual enters into psychological distress status. Psychological distress is somehow the result of individual's inability versus acute psychological pressure that in other front causes the weakness in immune system and loss of its response. This research has been applied for investigating the effectiveness of de-stressing skills training for

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reduction of distress of women infected by breast cancer. The findings indicated that training the de-stressing skills including relaxation by deep breathing, learning the focus on present, changing the intellectual form and replacing positive inner whispers instead of negative inner whispers, avoiding from disaster-making, sympathy and attracting the social protections, laugh, and walking are effective on reducing the distress of women infected by breast cancer.

In relation to the findings of extant paper, it is observed that within two recent decades, Loy (1991) showed that good social relationships and protection are in connection with high rate of natural killer (NK²) cells that attack the cancer cells and high psychological pressure with low number of these cells. The sport has positive effects on immune system and endocrines of whom suffering from chronic diseases. Oze, Dilinsy & Kamishe (2012) demonstrated that the psychological interventions in group causes the positive perception of social protection and this subject increases the social compatibility and their ability for coping with breast cancer. The researches indicated that social protection as the information and feedbacks we receive from our important loved ones and friends have positive effect for coping with psychological stress and positive excitements (joy, happiness, love and interesting) by motivation lead them forward the new experiences and self-improvement. Therefore, there is a positive relationship between the amount of immune globulin A and kidding for coping with stress.

So, it is concluded that solving the stressful conditions may be an adaptive or non-adaptive manner. Non-adaptive manners such as deny and rejecting along with a short and deceptive relief endangers the individual's health whilst adaptive manners whether in problem-oriented or emotion-oriented provide the conditions that the individual takes action actively for confronting his negative excitements. The sport, establishing social bonds, requesting for protecting the others, combating against negative thoughts, possibility of explaining the stressful event and its aspects to the protectors and talking about negative excitements and important issues of life though as persuading the patients to clarifying the harms and life pains as memoir writing, relaxation training, meditation and resting are considered as the actions may be taken according to the conditions of breast cancer patients in order to reduce the distress.

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Conflict of Interests

The author declared no conflict of interests.

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